

# THE LONDON REVIEW

OF

Politics, Society, Literature, Art, & Science.

No. 255.—VOL. X.]

SATURDAY, MAY 20, 1865.

[PRICE 4d.  
Stamped 5d.]

## REVIEW OF POLITICS.

America.  
Veering Round to Reform.  
Indian Prospects.  
St. Katharine's Hospital.  
Medical Education as it is.  
The Case of Richard Gibson.  
London Dogs.  
Our University Letter.

## THE "LONDON REVIEW" CHURCH

### COMMISSION:—

No. VII.—Diocese of Winchester  
(continued).

Trowbridge.

The Church—Her Parties.

### FINE ARTS:—

The Royal Academy (Third Notice).

## Music.

The London Theatres.

## SCIENCE.

MONEY AND COMMERCE.

## REVIEWS OF BOOKS:—

Exodus of the Western Nations.

Brigand Life in Italy.

## Studies in Biography.

Travels by "Umbra."

Books of Poems.

Malayan India.

Short Notices.

Literary Gossip.

List of New Publications for the  
Week.

## REVIEW OF POLITICS.

THE present Session of Parliament will not be altogether barren of results if the Union Chargeability Bill becomes law. Although that measure is only an instalment of the justice due to the labouring classes, it is a considerable instalment. If it does not abolish the law of settlement and removal, it is a great step towards their abolition. If it does not sweep away every artificial impediment upon the free circulation of labour, it at least promises to rid us of one of the worst scandals upon our social system. By extending the area of rating it will remove that encouragement which the law has hitherto held out to the overcrowding of our rural population, to their banishment from the neighbourhood of their work, and to the unnatural limitation upon the number of dwellings available for their accommodation. It will interpose an almost insuperable barrier against the efforts of landowners to make "close" parishes, and thus to exonerate themselves from the payment of poor-rates at the expense of the agricultural labourers who have been condemned to walk many weary miles to and from their daily toil for the profit of those who benefit by their labour. And although it does not of itself suffice to place our system of poor-relief upon an equitable basis, it weakens materially the most formidable obstructions which have up to the present time stood in the way of a complete and thorough reform. When we consider the extent to which the selfish interests of the landlord class are enlisted against this measure, we cannot affect to be surprised that it has met with an unusually stubborn and pertinacious resistance. There is much more legitimate cause for surprise at the overwhelming majority by which the House of Commons resolved, on Monday evening, to go into Committee upon the Bill. We trust that after the decisive defeat which the minority then received, they will no longer maintain a useless contest. They have up to the present time exhausted every resource of Parliamentary tactics, in order to delay or defeat the progress of a measure which they dared not oppose directly. The sense of one branch of the Legislature is evidently as decidedly against them as is the authority of every Parliamentary Committee which has inquired into the subject, and of every official or ex-official who is, or has been, concerned in the administration of the Poor-laws. It is possible that the House of Peers may still be induced to reject the Bill; but we trust that their lordships will be better advised. This is no time for consulting class-interests at the expense of the common weal. Much as we desire Parliamentary Reform, we should regret to see the demand for it enforced by such arguments as might be derived from a step of that kind. Lord J. Manners told the House of

Commons the other night, with declamatory exaggeration, that Mr. Villiers's measure would bring about "a social revolution." There is no pretence for such an assertion; but, on the other hand, an obstinate determination on the part of the landowners to maintain an inequitable exemption from local burthens, would lend much countenance to those who contend that something very like "a social revolution" is necessary to the well-being of the agricultural districts and the elevation of the agricultural labourer.

Her Majesty's Ministers have been questioned in both Houses of Parliament with respect to the further recognition of the belligerent rights of the Southern States. Lord Houghton and Mr. White are, and have been throughout the war, ardent friends of the North. Their sympathies were very plainly manifested in the terms of their inquiries, and in the remarks by which they were prefaced. They implied, if they did not assert, that England had done the Federal States a wrong, which she was bound to redress at the earliest opportunity; and the noble lord at any rate seemed to think that it became us to efface the recollection of our offence by the promptness of our atonement. Earl Russell very properly pointed out that this notion was altogether fallacious. As he remarked, we did not "concede" belligerent rights to the South in the sense of conferring upon them a favour. The Federal States asserted for themselves belligerent rights by proclaiming the blockade of the Confederate ports. Unless we were prepared to deny those belligerent rights to the North,—or to take sides with her in the conflict,—we had no choice but to recognise the obvious fact that a state of war existed, and to submit to the exercise by either party of the privileges which such a state conferred upon them according to the law of nations. It is equally clear, as both the First Minister and the Foreign Secretary argued, that it would be premature to withdraw our recognition of belligerent rights on the part of the Confederates so long as the Federals act in a manner which is inconsistent with a state of peace. Until they raise the blockade of the Southern ports, and renounce any claim to stop and search vessels on the high seas, it is plain that they are in no position to assert that peace is restored. When they do, it will be the duty of the Government to consider carefully the course which they shall adopt; nor can we doubt what their decision will be. But we apprehend that Lord Palmerston was not correct in stating, as he is reported to have done, that "whenever the Government of the United States shall declare that it ceases to exercise with regard to neutrals those rights of search, capture, and condemnation which belong to belligerents, then the war, as far as neutrals are concerned, ceases, and there will be no acknowledgment of belligerents either on the one side or the other." Under existing circumstances,



that no doubt will be the effect of such a declaration on the part of the United States Government, because, so far as the Confederates are concerned, the war seems practically at an end. But the neutral is surely entitled to form his own opinion on this point. He is not bound to act upon the assertion of one belligerent; and therefore, although the Premier's answer may be practically correct, if its application be limited to the present case, it is open to serious objection if it be regarded as a general statement of international law. Earl Russell's cautious statement, that such a declaration as that referred to would impose upon the Government the duty of consulting the law-officers of the Crown as to the course they should adopt, was more accurate and statesmanlike.

The diplomatic tangle in which the fate of the Duchies of Slesvig and Holstein is involved becomes more and more complicated. M. von Bismarck would fain have cut the knot by taking possession of the harbour of Kiel. Having been compelled to abandon this trenchant mode of settling the question, he has apparently fallen back upon his former system of interposing all kinds of delays and difficulties in the way of a final settlement. The Duchies in the meantime remain practically under the control of Prussia; and it is, at least, not impossible that the population may at last in sheer weariness abandon their desire for the formation of an independent principality, and throw themselves unreservedly into the arms of the North German power. If, indeed, Prussia would consent to give Austria a guarantee for the secure possession of her non-German provinces, the latter power would probably be found as compliant as could be desired. The cabinet of Vienna care little or nothing either for the rights of the people of the Duchies, or for the rights of the Duke of Augustenburg. All that they desire is to turn their hold upon the Duchies to the best account. Prussia is however far too cautious to commit herself to the maintenance of Austrian rule in Venetia; and therefore the project of which this was an essential portion has fallen to the ground. Another, which turned upon the cession of the Hohenzollern Principalities, and of part of Silesia to Austria in return for her connivance at the annexation of Slesvig and Holstein by Prussia, was talked off for a short time, but was never, we believe, seriously entertained. At present the favourite idea seems to be that of convening the Estates of the Duchies and cajoling or coercing them into some arrangement which may be satisfactory to the two powers who have been good enough to rescue them from the tyranny of the King of Denmark. But we confess we do not see how any settlement can be arrived at in this way so long as the two powers in question are hopelessly at variance. If, indeed, they would consent to refer the matter to the decision of these representative bodies there would be something definite and hopeful in this plan. But it is, on the contrary, expressly stipulated that neither Austria nor Prussia shall be bound by their vote; and that they shall not be allowed to entertain any question which is not jointly submitted to them by the two protecting powers. It is clear that under such restrictions the reference to the Estates is a mere farce. It is in no sense a *bond fide* consultation of public opinion. It simply means that each power thinks it can gain some advantage over its rival by intriguing with the deputies. The scene of diplomatic combat may be changed from Berlin and Vienna to Kiel, but the character of the conflict will not be altered. There will still be the same difficulty as heretofore in conciliating the selfish interests of the two "Saviours of Germany;" and until that difficulty is surmounted no progress can be made towards the solution of this long-pending and most tedious question.

The recent advices from New Zealand are of a very chequered character. It is clear that the war is still far from being at an end. Although there is apparently no body of natives in the field at all capable of offering a serious resistance to our power, our troops are harassed by a sort of guerilla warfare, which defies their efforts. They make toilsome marches, with little or no result; they undergo great hardships without being able to bring the enemy to action, and without being able to protect the colony from the incursions of the active and cunning savages with whom they have to deal. Under these circumstances it is not surprising that there should be a growing dissatisfaction with General Cameron, and an increasing doubt whether regular troops are well adapted for the effectual prosecution of bush warfare. A colonial corps, under officers of local knowledge—armed and dis-

ciplined with a view to the special exigencies they have to encounter—would in all probability (especially acting in concert with friendly natives) prove far more formidable to the Maori warriors than our elaborately drilled and heavily equipped infantry. For this reason, and also on account of the financial relief which it would afford them, the settlers seem exceedingly anxious to carry into effect as soon as possible the policy of depending upon their own exertions. Of course that is a desire the Home Government should indulge, and no doubt will indulge, in every possible way. At the same time we trust that nothing will be done precipitately, or in such a way as to leave behind it any trace of ill-feeling between the mother country and the colony. And we are glad to see that any danger on this score has been very much diminished by the restoration of a good understanding between Governor Grey and his ministry.

The leaders of the detached Confederate corps seem to be rapidly following the example of Generals Lee and Johnston, and surrendering to the commanders of the Federal forces. It seems to be admitted on all hands that further resistance is useless, nor do we see any indications of an intention to continue the combat either by operations in Texas or by a guerilla warfare. There can be no doubt as to the wisdom of this course, for further resistance could only end in a deplorable loss of life, without leading to any useful result. Under these circumstances there can be no justification for rigorous measures on the part of the conquerors. If they are resorted to they will bear a vindictive character, and will recoil fatally upon those from whom they proceed. But there is some reason to fear that they find favour with the President. His declaration that the people must be made to understand that treason is the worst of crimes, has already been followed up by a proclamation which seems to imply that the amnesty granted to the Confederates will be subjected to large exceptions. There is, moreover, an evident disposition to make the murder of Mr. Lincoln a pretence for steps of the harshest character. The Federal Government insist that that crime was the result of a wide-spread and deep-laid conspiracy, and they have, at all events, so far acted upon that theory—of which, however, no proof has yet been offered—as to arrest something like 300 persons. Had they done nothing more, we might have excused it, on the ground of the panic and excitement naturally consequent upon such a deed. But the determined effort to implicate Mr. Jefferson Davis as the accomplice of Booth, the price set upon that gentleman's head, the official charge of complicity brought against several of the more prominent Confederate refugees in Canada—authorize the suspicion that Mr. Johnson is bent on finding or making a justification for wreaking vengeance on those whom he has now acquired the power to treat as rebels. We fear, moreover, that in this he only represents too faithfully the popular sentiment; for we observe that, while the New York Chamber of Commerce have passed resolutions in favour of treating the Southern people with magnanimity and clemency, they have at the same time called for uncompromising justice—which means, of course, uncompromising severity—towards the Southern leaders.

#### AMERICA.

THE civil war in America is at an end. One after another the armies of the South have surrendered to the enemy, and there is now no considerable body of Confederates in the field. The idea of prolonging the combat by a guerilla warfare has been abandoned, if it was ever entertained. No stand in Texas seems contemplated, and at the present moment, nearly the whole of that vast area which was lately the scene of a gallant, though unequal struggle, is in the hands, or lies at the mercy, of Mr. Andrew Johnson. The population who struggled so bravely, although so unsuccessfully, for their old State rights, for the power of self-government, and for liberation from the dominion of a race whom they detest, are waiting helplessly to learn their fate from the lips of a conqueror who has the power to be a tyrant. No more do we watch with eager interest the arrival of each steamer from New York with the latest news from the theatre of war. The excitement of the great game so long, so skilfully, and so pertinaciously played between Lee and Grant is over; the winner has been declared, and the States have passed into his possession. They are not, however, yet disposed of; and it is a question of the deepest moment, not only to the Southern



people, but to the world in general, and to England in particular, what use President Johnson will make of the power he has so completely acquired. Had Mr. Lincoln been spared, we have no doubt that he would have made the most generous and merciful use of his victory. He was more than once heard to express a hope that Mr. Davis might effect his escape to Europe, and amongst his latest recorded sayings were words of kindness towards General Lee. If such were his feelings towards the two great chiefs and leaders of the Confederacy, it is not likely that he would have cared to trouble himself with the punishment of less conspicuous men. The late President had, moreover, in the last few months of his life, acquired an influence over his fellow-citizens which would have enabled him to carry out a policy of magnanimity and conciliation. He would have received the willing and earnest support of the best portion of Federal society; he would have been able to silence, even if he could not convince, the violent, the fanatical, and the bloodthirsty. The work of reconstruction would have been carried on under his supervision with as fair a chance of success as was possible under all the circumstances of the case; for he would have borne steadily in mind the idea to which he clung from the first to the last day of his tenure of office—that his paramount duty was, not to abolish slavery, or to crush slaveholders, but to maintain or to restore the Union. He had, it is true, become an abolitionist in the course of the struggle, and both from motives of humanity and policy he would certainly have insisted upon the extinction of the "domestic institution;" but, if we may judge by the mode in which, with his sanction, General Banks dealt with the slaves of Louisiana, Mr. Lincoln would have been prepared to subject the negro to a period of probation. As a man of common sense, he would have seen that the transition from bondage to freedom was not to be accomplished at a bound. His natural sagacity would have revolted at the notion of endowing the field hands of a southern plantation with the franchise, and of thus investing them with absolute power over their former masters. As he had no natural bitterness or hatred towards the South, he would have acted upon the obvious dictates of prudence and expediency. So acting, he would have deserved, and would probably have commanded, ultimate success; although the task of reorganizing Southern society, and of reconciling the Southern people to the restored Union would have been difficult, laborious, and long, even if it had been undertaken in the most statesman-like spirit.

It is, however, but too plain that no such spirit is now at work in the Federal councils. Whatever else Mr. Johnson may be, he is not a statesman either in temper or in capacity. He is evidently a man of keen feelings and of strong passions. From being a pro-slavery fanatic, he has been converted into an anti-slavery fanatic. He has suffered much from the Confederates; and it is manifest, from the way in which he governed Tennessee, that he is not in the habit of returning good for evil. Under any circumstances, he would have been in favour of a harsh and vindictive policy towards the South. The assassination of Mr. Lincoln has not only strengthened the impulses which drive him in this direction; but it has given him a plausible excuse for acts of extreme severity, and has enlisted on his side many who would otherwise have been in favour of "letting bygones be bygones." He is evidently nothing loth to avail himself of the advantage thus thrown in his way. In one of the first speeches he made after his accession to power, he insisted on the propriety and necessity of punishing the leaders of secession; and his last act shows that this is no idle menace. The proclamation offering a reward for the apprehension of Mr. Jefferson Davis and others, on the ground that they incited and procured the atrocious act of Wilkes Booth, is an indication of what we may expect. The late President sought for excuses to avoid hanging anybody; President Johnson eagerly pounces upon pretences for erecting the gibbet. Washington is filled—evidently at the instance of the Government—with reports of all kinds of plots of the wildest and most incredible description, and three hundred persons are in custody as accomplices in the murder of Mr. Lincoln. It is true that Mr. Johnson professes to entertain the most merciful intentions towards the mass of the Southern population. But he must have a much worse opinion of them than we entertain, if he thinks that exemption from personal punishment will render them indifferent to the execution or the spoliation of their leaders. If they are the men we believe them to be, they will resent bitterly even a proscription of which they are not the victims. Besides, they may be made to suffer in other ways than by taking their lives or their lands. If the President realizes the anticipations of Mr. Wendell

Phillips—and looking both to his past and his present we think it probable he will—the condition of the whites in the Southern States will indeed be deplorable. That eminent and ardent abolitionist has recently delivered a speech, the truculence of which may be imagined when we say that General Lee was described in it as "a wretch" whose soul is black with 64,000 deaths of prisoners by starvation and torture; and that an imperative demand was made upon the President for the banishment of 1,000 rebel leaders, and the confiscation of every dollar and acre they possess. But the main point on which the orator insisted was the propriety of instantly investing every negro in the South with the franchise. In the recent Reform debate Mr. Horsman taunted the English advocates of universal suffrage with limiting the comprehensive liberality of their creed by refusing the vote to persons guilty of crime. Mr. Phillips is not amenable to such a taunt. He has elevated the capacity to commit crime into a test of capacity for the exercise of political power. "My rule is," he says, "any citizen liable to be hanged for crime is entitled to vote for rulers." That is, we believe the broadest basis that has ever been laid down for the extension of the franchise. It is one, moreover, to which, if we believe Mr. Phillips, Mr. Johnson, when governor of Tennessee, gave his assent. It is possible that, with increased responsibility, he may take a more moderate view; but there is very little ground for thinking that he will. At all events no one can be surprised if he should resolve upon carrying out the policy of the ultra-abolitionists, and should find a perverse and malignant pleasure in subjecting the whites to the dominion of the blacks. To any one not blinded by fanaticism or by the desire for revenge, the result must be obvious. The notion of investing the present generation of negroes with political power would be ludicrous if it were not terrible. The only possible consequence of carrying it out would be to plunge the Southern States into a condition of anarchy and confusion; to postpone indefinitely the reconciliation of the whites to the restored Union; and to institute something very like a reign of terror, supported by Northern bayonets. We should be glad to think that our apprehensions on this head are illusory. But we cannot do so, when we see what is expected of Mr. Johnson by the party to which he belongs, and bear in mind his character, his career, and his avowed principles.

But there is a still more important subject for the consideration of Englishmen. The foreign policy of the new President may, and we fear will, touch us nearly. Mr. Lincoln was never known to have committed himself to the Monroe doctrine; Mr. Johnson has always been one of its most enthusiastic supporters. Mr. Lincoln had had enough of war, to which he was not inclined either by his character or his previous pursuits. Mr. Johnson is just the kind of man to love war, and the power and influence which it brings to those who make it. We know that he received Sir F. Bruce with many civil words, and that he professed to our ambassador the liveliest desire to live on terms of amity with England. But we cannot help regarding with extreme suspicion the pains which are taken by his Government and by their semi-official organs to fix firmly upon the Northern mind an impression that the murder of Mr. Lincoln was planned in Canada. It seems as if there were a wish to establish a sore which may be advantageously irritated, when the proper time comes. We do not, indeed, apprehend any immediate danger; for it will probably be our lot to be the last devoured. As a Southerner, Mr. Johnson is, no doubt, far more eager to expel the French from Mexico than to drive the English out of Canada. Nor is that all. He may probably be credited with sufficient astuteness to perceive that his best chance of disuniting the Powers of Western Europe, of attacking them separately and of successively appropriating Mexico and Canada, lies in commencing operations by an attack upon the Emperor Maximilian. An invasion of Canada would be a wrong of so flagrant a character that it would at once disclose the whole scope of his designs. The Emperor Napoleon would see that if Mexico was to be defended at all, it must be defended in Canada. His own interests would constrain him to take part with England, and the United States would find themselves encountered by a formidable alliance. On the other hand, no English Government could go to war for the Mexican empire; and it is equally certain that, whether that empire was overthrown, or was maintained by the sole support of France, Louis Napoleon could thenceforth have neither wish nor motive to assist in defending Canada. The true mode of attacking Canada is, therefore, to commence by attacking Mexico. And even thus early—while the embers of civil war are yet hot beneath his tread—the President does not care to conceal his inclinations. One of his first acts after entering office was



to receive, in a very ostentatious manner, the representative of General Juarez; and, according to the latest advices, he has permitted the friends of that General to open offices both in Philadelphia and Washington for the reception of recruits. At present he will probably go no further; perhaps, indeed, he hopes that these filibusters will succeed in expelling Maximilian. But his connivance at enlistment for such a purpose sufficiently indicates the object he has in view. Whether Louis Napoleon will patiently suffer the new state which he has founded to be thus undermined remains to be seen. But the attempt is in itself a warning of no ordinary significance. It shows that we may expect a restless and aggressive foreign policy on the part of the re-United States, and that their President has a clear perception of the best mode of commencing operations for the liberation of America from European influence and interference. Nor is it pleasant to think that if matters are conducted with ordinary tact and discretion, England may easily be isolated, and may be forced to take upon herself the entire burthen of protecting her colonial possessions. Such is the too probable result of the short-sighted and selfish policy which our Government has pursued for the last four years. We had such a chance of securing the safety of Canada, and of establishing a balance of power on the American continent, as is never likely to occur again. Allied with the Emperor of the French, we might almost, without an effort, have secured the independence of the Confederate States. But we would run no risk, even to avert a certain danger:—a danger which all our statesmen recognise by their nervous anxiety in respect to the defence of Canada. We hoped that the Confederates would successfully fight our battles while we stood by and looked on. Our hopes have been disappointed, and what is the consequence? Those who would have been our most faithful allies—for they would have been bound to us by the closest ties of interest—are converted into enemies. The Emperor of the French has been convinced that it is useless to expect our co-operation in American affairs; and that the only course open to him is to look sharply after his own interest, and leave us to reap the reward of our blunders. A state of circumstances has thus arisen which deprives us of any control over the future; and leaves it in the power of an ambitious and rapacious neighbour, to fall upon us at his own time, in full assurance that no one will come to our assistance.

#### VEERING ROUND TO REFORM.

Those who read the *Times* in order to form their opinions are often placed in the distressing position of finding their convictions of yesterday, by an unexpected gyration of their guide, face to face with their clear sentiments of to-day. But those who watch its course to learn what, in the belief of anxiously observant and clever men, is going to be the tendency of public opinion, frequently find matter of interest and instruction in signs which only confuse and betray the implicitly confiding. Such value as this belongs to a strategic retreat which the "leading organ" is just now performing from the position it lately held in Reform discussion. Six months ago it laughed at the poor minority who still spoke of Reform as a vital question. It declared that the subject was dead and buried, that nobody in the country really cared for it, that nobody could give any reason why it should be cared for, since we were all prosperous and all contented: we all lived under good laws and we all knew it, and even those who still spasmodically declaimed in favour of Reform could not point out a single measure which it would avail to carry. There was, therefore, no surprise felt when Mr. Lowe, freed from Ministerial reticence, boldly announced these principles in the House of Commons. His speech, reading very like a brilliant *Times* leader, full of broad and bold assertions of materialism, sparkling with the glitter of the philosophy of absolute selfishness, weighty with the assumption of personal infallibility, drew enthusiastic cheers and hearty praise from every pupil of the *Times*' school. But, in the eyes of the real masters of that school, it had one cardinal and unpardonable defect—it was out of date. Six months, three months, perhaps one month ago it would have been right in time and place. But meantime other weather-signs had loomed upon the horizon. Some *Times*' members had already begun to sound their constituents, and had found an ominous tardiness of promises of support on the part of former Liberal friends. There had been in the West Riding meetings, some comprising all the wealth, some the honest poverty of the district, but all firm in the determination that a thorough Reform Bill should be made the crucial test of the next election. Earnest

and thinking men had begun to speak to each other in much the same way as that in which Dr. Temple has since addressed the public, admitting the necessity of facing and trying to settle the question, lest worse should follow. So the *Times* could not support Mr. Lowe in his sense of satisfaction with things as they are. On the morning after his great speech it thus indicated its newly-awakened sense that Reform after all is not dead and buried:—

"It is not sufficient that the laws which are promulgated are good, it is necessary that the best ability and intelligence of the country should be brought into action in devising them. Every power in the community, capable of being usefully employed, should form part of the electoral machine. It will scarcely be contended that this is strictly the case at present. There are many persons—some living in lodgings in Parliamentary boroughs, others living in towns not represented in Parliament, and wanting the county qualification,—who might fitly be admitted to the franchise. How to strengthen the nation by the introduction of such persons into the electoral system is a question which, if not so urgent as to press for instant solution is worthy of the attention of all who aspire to be statesmen."

When the division came which for this session stopped the progress of Reform, the *Times*, while approving the particular vote, nevertheless protested.

"The vote of the House must not, however, be interpreted as indicative of aversion from all reform. There are many now without the franchise whose admission to it would exercise a good influence on the House and would strengthen the Constitution."

And when Lord Elcho, recoiling from the spectre of reform which he himself had raised, gave notice of his motion for a commission of inquiry, the *Times* supported it in words which the most radical of philosophers might have penned.

"The relations between the representative body and the mass of the people are worth improving for their own sake. The stability of the country is strengthened by enlisting every intellectual and moral force within it for its support. At present large classes have little or no share in nominating the members of the House of Commons. The exclusion of large numbers of the people from the electoral system, and the apparently haphazard way in which the existing constituencies have been created, may become pregnant with danger at any time of trouble or depression. Every consideration tends to recommend a speedy settlement of a question which may at any time prove embarrassing to the conduct of public affairs, and which has been treated very much as described by Mr. Lowe, like a plaything bandied to and fro between opposing parties."

We do not cite these curious passages of recantation for the sake of confirming the arguments we ourselves have used on the question, similar as they may be to the suggestions which from time to time we have ventured to submit to our readers. They are too much mixed up, *more solito*, with passages of qualification and contradiction, to be of any value to either side of the discussion. But we cite them to show that what we predicted has come to pass, that the approach of a general election has brought, as we showed it inevitably must, the question of reform into fresh and persistent prominence, even among those who are most anxious to ignore it, while the evidence that it is a matter in which the unenfranchised, though they show no external excitement, are firmly resolved and united, has compelled all thinking men to desire its settlement, and all candid men to confess that good and not harm will follow from its being conceded.

So now the only point to be considered is not whether we must entertain the question at all, but, since perforce we must both entertain and decide it, on what terms we shall grant the demand that is made upon us. And there are sufficient indications that we had better not spend too much time in considering. For there is a very large body of the working men who have determined on having neither more nor less than manhood suffrage, and every hour's delay in our offer of a reasonable substitute strengthens their numbers and their case. Nor let us think we could resist if it were seriously insisted on by the whole body. It is a body which for such a purpose is tenfold more powerful outside than it would be within the pale of the franchise. Outside it has a common object, inside it would be broken up into divisions. Nor is there any magic in the word franchise which can enable those few who possess it to resist the many of their own countrymen who demand it. If it comes to simple demand and simple refusal, who can doubt whether it will be the one million or the four millions that must yield?

Dr. Temple, indeed, while adding one more to the schemes for limited concession, inveighs in his second letter against the unreasonable obstinacy of the Radical party in summarily rejecting the compromises of Earl Grey, Mr. Mill, and Mr. Holyoke. But out of these very different proposals Dr. Temple does not tell us which he would have them entertain; and in fact, since he himself recommends another which is quite



distinct from any of them, it is hardly fair in him to object to a rejection in which he concurs. But we will tell him why they are rejected as soon as stated. It is because they are all contrary to the principles of our existing Constitution. At present, we are either electors or non-electors. If electors, we have all equal power and equal privilege. Each man goes up to the same polling booth, whatever his rank; each vote counts for exactly the same, whatever the value of the property which gives it. And the unenfranchised are also equal among themselves, and in some respects equal, in the eye of principle, with the enfranchised. They have not votes, but they are told that for all of them the electors hold their votes in trust. But the systems for which Dr. Temple, while displacing them, pleads, would introduce a new principle or a new class. They would allow a man, because of his poverty or his trade, only a fraction of a vote, or a fraction of representation. Either his vote, in some plans, would count for less than that of his richer neighbours; or, in others, it would be taken for a special member, of whom a strictly limited number are to be told off for the special representation of his amount of worldly wealth. These suggestions abolish at once the ideas of either equality or trusteeship. A stigma of inferiority or limitation would be laid on all who under them would hold votes, and those who were not admitted to votes would not see a virtual representation of themselves in a representation definitely appropriated to members of a different class solely because they are members of that class.

There is, therefore, the fatal objection to all such schemes that they would still leave or rather enhance discontent, alike in the minds of those whom they admitted under conditions, and of those whom they unconditionally excluded. And since this is the fact, it is needless to inquire whether it ought to be so or not. The first object and motive of Reform is to give strength to the country by giving contentment and a sense of responsibility to the majority of those who are now dissatisfied and irresponsible. Schemes that fail in this primary requirement may be very ingenious, and even fair and reasonable in an abstract point of view. But since they would not fulfil their chief purpose, it is idle to waste time in inquiring whether they would fulfil secondary purposes.

It is obvious day by day, as the conflict of opinions progresses, that nothing but simplicity will serve. We must stick as far as possible to the systems we know. For thirty years the agitation has been for extension of existing franchises and redistribution of electoral districts. For these purposes a thousand different plans have been and may be proposed. There is nothing new or startling, nothing unconstitutional, nothing tending to create a stigma of inferiority or a class-interest, in either lowering the money franchise or introducing "fancy franchises" or an "educational franchise." Among these some reasonable point of limitation may surely be found and agreed on. But there must be equality among the enfranchised, whether they are few or many. And they must vote with their fellow-electors, and not for certain specified members, whom, as a favour, they would be allowed to select for themselves.

#### INDIAN PROSPECTS.

INDIA is a subject on which it would seem impossible to arouse the attention of Englishmen by anything short of a convulsion. We have gained—by what means we need not now examine—one of the most splendid empires ever held by a warlike race on the somewhat questionable tenure of the sword. The regions which Alexander the Great only knew in their north-western extremity—which were a wonder and a mystery to Greeks and Romans—which were among the fairest acquisitions of Moslem conquerors, and for the possession of which France disputed with us beneath the fiery sun of the Carnatic—have become, through by far their greatest extent, the inheritance of our race; and yet, as a nation, we cannot be persuaded to interest ourselves in the condition and prospects of this magnificent dependency. A few Englishmen make gigantic fortunes there; a few Englishwomen find husbands of enormous wealth and of enlarged livers; we maintain an army of 70,000 British troops to watch another army of native Hindus and Mahometans; we have on our hands now a war and now a rebellion; we are constructing railways, and laying down telegraphic lines, and attempting to convert the people to Christianity; yet, when Sir Charles Wood rises to bring in his Indian Budget, he can barely get "a House," and very few people read the report next morning in the daily papers. Hindustan makes Queen Victoria an Empress; but it cannot excite in the English people at large sufficient interest to induce them to inquire whether the Indian revenue shows a

surplus or a deficit, whether the country is well or ill governed, whether the population is contented or only sullenly submissive, or whether or not we are to expect some day another outbreak like that which eight years ago brought gloom over all England, Scotland, and Ireland. This indifference is of course extremely regrettable, but we can hardly say that it is surprising. The political and social condition of an Asiatic country is so entirely distinct from that of any European land, that without special training it is not easy to be understood. Even with respect to Continental States, Englishmen are not generally as well-informed as could be wished; but the difference between English politics and those of France, Italy, or Germany, is comparatively slight, and, if anything remarkable occurs at Paris, Turin, Rome, Vienna, Berlin, or Dresden, the leading facts may be speedily "read up," and a reasonable judgment formed. In India, we are brought face to face with an Oriental people, whose religion, social habits, ideas of morality, theories of government, and systems of territorial possession, are the very antipodes of our own. To acquire a thorough knowledge of Indian affairs is the study of a life; and the difficulty is increased by the fact of the land having had several conquerors, who have introduced a variety of customs, all of which must be understood ere we can fully grasp the exact condition of that distant empire. The ordinary stay-at-home Englishman, who has his own work to attend to, will not, and indeed cannot, give the time necessary for such a study. He is repelled at the outset by unpronounceable names and words; and he leaves the whole subject in the hands of those who make it their business to know.

To the Anglo-Indian, however, this disregard of such grave and weighty interests is incomprehensible. He inveighs against the dulness or the levity of his countrymen, and from time to time endeavours to rouse their apathy by promises of still more extended empire, or by threats of approaching insurrection. We have before us two pamphlets written by a British officer who has served in the East, and who has therefore had personal experience of the subject of which he treats.\* If we are to place reliance on what he says, we shall speedily be forced to take note of our Indian possessions in a very disagreeable way. He tells us that we have effected no real pacification since the awful insurrection which it cost us so much blood and treasure to put down; that the people generally are unreconciled to our rule; that the native army cannot be trusted; that the native police are our covert enemies; and that all are waiting their opportunity to rebel, and to repeat, perhaps on a yet larger scale, the horrors of 1857-8. "Our position in the country," we are told, "is that of conquerors hated by the subject races." If this be so, it is a serious question how far we have any moral right to be in the country at all; and it is a grave impeachment, either of our position there under any circumstances whatever, or of the use which we have made of that position, that after so many years of rule we should still have nothing but unwilling subjects and a menacing future. But the more important consideration for the present is, how to provide against the danger hanging over us, supposing it really to exist. That it is not wholly imaginary we can well believe. The native Indian is not disinclined to submit to superior force, and it may be that the mere fact of subjection does not greatly vex his spirit. But he will not readily tolerate the dominion of a pale-faced people from the North-west, with ideas and habits totally dissimilar to his own—with a religion which seems incapable of taking root in the extreme East, and with a tendency to innovation in those very matters which are the dearest to the native mind. We have shown too much rapacity and double-dealing in the acquisition of new territory to permit either Hindus or Mahometans to hold our moral character in any very awful estimation; and we were too nearly overwhelmed in the last outbreak to leave on their minds the impression of inviolable predominance. We can therefore perfectly well understand that there may be a smouldering fire of antagonism lurking under that superficial crust of deference and servility, and that the hope may be entertained of another rising, more successful than the last. It is important in that case to ascertain the views of experienced men as to the measures which ought to be taken as a precaution against so frightful a peril; and the "British Officer" whose pamphlets we are considering is not backward in telling us what, in his opinion, would be the wisest course. Strange to say, after arousing our fears about the unreliability of the Sepoys, the native police, and the population generally, he goes on to advocate a considerable reduction in the number of British troops in India. He would strike off 20,000 men from

\* Letters from India, on its Present State and Future Prospects. By a British Officer.

A Letter from India. By a Staff College Officer.



the 70,000 we now maintain there. His argument for this step is that we cannot keep up such a drain on our resources without severely crippling ourselves, and endangering our position in Europe as a first-class Power, in case of a general war in which we might be forced to join. We think he does not sufficiently regard the unmistakable tendency exhibited by this country of late years to adopt a policy of non-intervention. Even in the brief period which has elapsed since the Crimean war, we have seen an immense increase in the disposition of all classes—for reasons sometimes most wise and commendable, sometimes, it is to be feared, merely selfish—to keep clear of Continental imbroglios. Still, it is quite possible that, in a moment of passion or of aroused self-interest, we might find ourselves once more face to face with one of the great European Powers; and in that case we should probably be compelled to recall some of our Indian regiments, as the Romans recalled their legions from Gaul and Britain when the Empire was threatened nearer to the heart. But could we withdraw 20,000 of our men from India consistently with the safety of our power in that land? The "British Officer" says we could, if at the same time we reduced the native army, rendered our own troops more efficient by greater attention to their health, reorganized the native police by bringing it more under the control of English officers, and made better progress with railways and electric telegraphs, laying them out with a view not merely to convenience, but also to strategic purposes. Assuming that India is really in the volcanic state indicated by our authority (and, as we have already said, we have but too much reason to fear that there is considerable truth in the assertion), we cannot agree in the advisability of removing a single man from our Eastern possessions. It appears to us that the "British Officer's" facts and his recommendations are at issue with one another. England must always maintain a large force of natives, and it has already been seen how fiercely they can turn upon us, and what difficult enemies they are to deal with. How any reorganization of the native police, even supposing all the officers to be English, can neutralize their ability to be mischievous, when we are told that every man among them sympathizes warmly with the population from which they are drawn, we are at a loss to conceive. No doubt they should be officered by ourselves; but they would still be enabled to plot against us, if they had the mind, though with less readiness than before. Better sanitary regulations for our troops are unquestionably needed, and the construction of railways, with an eye to the rapid transport and concentration of regiments, would obviously be a great increase to our strength. But, if the whole of India is stirring uneasily under our yoke, and the very men whom we have trained and armed are the most likely to fly at our throats directly they think they can do so with a fair chance of success, 70,000 British troops do not appear too large a force to keep such an enemy in check. It is an ignominious confession to make, but it is none the less true, that we can only hold India by the sword. Conquerors are never loved. The bitter legacy of violence is to necessitate a continuance of violence to the very end. This may be a prospect which offers little satisfaction to our ambition; but it is nevertheless that to which we must accommodate ourselves at last, because it is the one most in harmony with the conditions of the case.

#### ST. KATHARINE'S HOSPITAL.

THE gradual but never-ceasing change which is taking place in the character and condition of the different quarters of the metropolis affords, perhaps, the most important clue to the particularly unsatisfactory condition of the many richly-endowed charities which exist within its boundaries. In many cases the particular class of persons for whose benefit a charity was designed have either died out, or found themselves compelled to seek a home beyond the sphere of the charity's operations, while in others the charity itself has been transplanted to a neighbourhood which has no occasion for it. In both cases the endowment survives in full force, although the persons for whose benefit it was designed are either greatly reduced in numbers, or have died out altogether. The result of this state of things, together with the alteration in the value of money since the foundation of the older charities, and the improved value of lands in their possession, is, that instead of being institutions for the dispensation of alms to needy people, many of the metropolitan charities have resolved themselves into fat sinecures for the support of the more necessitous members of the aristocracy.

It would probably be difficult to find a more glaring instance of the iniquitous results of this state of things than that which is afforded by the curious old charity known

as the "Royal Hospital or Free Chapel of St. Katharine, near the Tower." This charity (which, by the way, is no longer situated "near the Tower," having been removed to a site in the Regent's Park on the formation of St. Katharine's Dock) was founded and endowed by Matilda, wife of King Stephen, in 1148, to support a master, brethren, sisters, and almspeople. The Queen purchased the site from the Priory of the Holy Trinity, Aldgate, and gave it to the perpetual custody of the hospital. In consequence, however, of certain abuses introduced by one of the canons of the priory, who held the mastership of the hospital in the reign of Henry III., Queen Eleanor, as Queen Consort, alienated the custody of the hospital, and re-established the charity on its present basis. Her charter of foundation is for a master, three brethren, three sisters, ten beadswomen, and six poor scholars. The queens of England were to nominate the master, brothers, and sisters; the beadswomen were to be maintained by the hospital, to lodge within it, and pray for the foundress; and the scholars were to be maintained, and to assist in Divine service. The foundation was for the repose of the souls of King Henry III., the foundress, and the faithful. By a charter granted by Queen Philippa, wife of Edward III., it is distinctly provided that the master and all the brethren must be in priests' orders.

Subsequently the hospital acquired ecclesiastical jurisdiction within its precincts. It was valued, with other religious houses, for suppression in the reign of Henry VIII.; but it was spared at the intercession (it is supposed) of the then patroness, Anne Boleyn. With its revenues the hospital retained, as a Royal Peculiar, its ecclesiastical jurisdiction and its Spiritual Court. This court continued in active existence until the removal of the hospital to its present site, in 1825, and it was not formally abolished until 1846. In accordance with the terms of the charter of Queen Philippa, the office of Master of the hospital was, until the death of Henry VIII., invariably held by a priest; but in 1547, Katharine Parr, Queen Dowager, gave the Mastership to Sir Thomas Seymour, Lord High Admiral of England, whom she subsequently married. He was succeeded, in 1549, by Sir Francis Fleming, another layman. In 1563, Thomas Wilson, secretary to the Queen, was appointed to the Mastership; but on finding that his patent was void, because he was not a priest according to Queen Philippa's charter, he surrendered it, and obtained, in 1563, a new patent, with a clause *non obstante*, which is so amusingly emphatic that it is worth quoting:—

"Et quod ipse idem Thomas officium et locum predictum capere et habere tenere et possidere pro termino vite sue virtute et vigore harum litterarum nostrarum patentium valeat et possit licet ipse idem Thomas Wilson laicus sit ac clericali ordine minime insignitus sed uxoratus et conjugatus ac etiam bigamus ac alias beneficiatus et non sacerdos."

Thomas Wilson's behaviour in office, and his mode of dealing with the funds of the charity, called forth from the inhabitants of the precinct a petition, which clearly shows that the objects of the foundation were the performance of Divine service and the relief of the poor, and not the private emolument of members of the Chapter. This petition appears to have had the effect of restraining Thomas Wilson from further spoliation; and a few years later he, still a layman, was appointed to the deanery of Durham—an appointment which affords valuable evidence that benefices undoubtedly spiritual were sometimes conferred on laymen. From this date all the masters appear to have been laymen; but it seems clear from the Charters, from the Patents of Mastership, and from the Ecclesiastical Jurisdiction of the hospital, that the masters and brethren are by law spiritual persons as distinctly as the dean and chapter of any other collegiate church.

In 1824 the St. Katharine's Docks Bill was introduced, and in 1825 it received the Royal assent. This Act authorized the purchase, by the St. Katharine's Dock Company, of the whole of the precinct, provided for the removal of the dead, and transferred the pastoral charge of the few remaining inhabitants of the precinct to the perpetual curate of Aldgate. The preamble of the section which makes this last provision is important as citing the relation then existing between the clergy of the hospital and the inhabitants of the precinct. It is as follows:—

"And whereas Divine worship has been heretofore solemnized in the collegiate church and hospital of St. Katharine according to the form established by the law of England, and all religious offices, rites, and ceremonies administered and performed to the inhabitants of the precinct of St. Katharine by the brethren of the said hospital, such precinct having from time immemorial been considered and deemed extra-parochial: and whereas by reason of the removal of the said collegiate church for the purpose of constructing the docks and works aforesaid, the few remaining inhabitants of the said precinct can no longer have such offices, rites, and ceremonies administered and performed to them within the said precinct as heretofore: and whereas it is requisite," &c. &c.



The church was destroyed and the materials sold on the passing of this Act, and the dead were removed to the churchyard of St. Dunstan's, Stepney, with the exception of the Duke of Exeter, whose body was removed to the new site in the Regent's Park.

The consequence of the removal of the hospital to a site so very remote from the original sphere of its operations has been to deprive a poor and, to a great extent, an immoral population of the alms and spiritual benefits of an extremely wealthy charity. As it at present exists, the fulfilment of its original purpose "for the Divine service of God, a free, pure, and perpetual alms," is represented by—

1. The services in a chapel holding 300 people, in which additional income is obtained from pew-rents.
2. The maintenance of a small charity school.
3. An annuity of £10 to each of forty poor persons.

These expenses are defrayed out of an income of no less than £6,819. 3s. at the very lowest valuation! Notwithstanding the wealth of the foundation, the site upon which the hospital is built, the nominal value of which is £7,500 (the actual value is much greater), was obtained gratuitously from the Treasury. As an example of the method in which the funds of this grand old charity are squandered, we may state that the restoration of the monument of the Duke of Exeter cost no less than £1,000. The well and an ornamental pump were constructed at an expense of many hundred pounds, and when completed it was discovered that the water was unfit for use. Furniture for the chapel cost £700, and £200 were expended on refitting and tuning the organ. These, with other expenses of minor importance, amounted in 1833 to £15,000.

Happily, these monstrous iniquities will, in all probability, be shortly investigated. The clergy of the deanery of Stepney have taken up the matter warmly, and on the 17th January, 1865, seven clergymen were appointed to act as a committee "to inquire whether any steps can be taken for repairing the loss sustained by the Church in East London in the removal of the ancient Hospital of St. Katharine, near the Tower." A pamphlet, containing the result of these inquiries, and from which we have gathered the facts relating to the present condition of the charity, was submitted on Wednesday last to the Bishop of London. Among the names of the committee are those of several gentlemen who have honourably distinguished themselves by their unremitting exertions in the cause of the poor of their crowded and impoverished parishes, and we sincerely trust that they may be successful in their efforts to restore to its proper uses an endowment which has been so unjustifiably diverted from its normal purpose—the proper celebration of Divine service and the relief of the poor in the neighbourhood of St. Katharine's Docks.

#### MEDICAL EDUCATION AS IT IS.

THERE is no profession, whose members come into contact with the public at so many different points, as that of medicine, and yet, we venture to affirm that it is one regarding whose educational advancement or requirements the public seems least interested. This may be the result of ignorance on the part of those external to the profession, concerning its present status, or it may be due to a feeling that, as medical men discharge their duties to society in an apparently satisfactory manner, it would be injudicious to provoke an alteration of the existing state of things. Whichever of these views is correct, it is certain that the non-professional portion of society exhibits a very lamentable apathy upon the subject of medical education, and it is equally true that this indifference is productive of consequences which, if depicted in their proper colours, would give rise to much alarm and anxiety. There appears to be too much of a tendency among people generally to class the medical man with the lawyer; to regard him as an individual who moves about laden with a store of knowledge, which he expends as occasion requires; and to suppose that in acquiring this information he has had simply to read books and "walk" hospitals; that the science of medicine is really a huge treasury of facts and experiences upon which he draws when necessary; in point of fact, that the medical man is an empiric. Such conclusions are unhappily too common, and of themselves alone are sufficient to demonstrate to those acquainted with the real nature of medical science, the urgent necessity which exists for informing the public on the momentous question of medical education. The statesman and the true physician (using the term in its widest sense) hold places which have many things in common. Both should be men of extensive mental culture, of keen reasoning powers, of great patience, of acute foresight, of ready action, and finally of fixed determination. These are qualities not frequently found in

combination, and yet in addition to them the medical man, *par excellence*, must possess an intense faculty of observation, and a kind and conciliatory disposition. His office is the alleviation of the physical sufferings of his fellow-beings, but this is not his only function; to him it also belongs to say a word of comfort to the afflicted, to compassionate the weak and weary, and often to travel beyond the limits of mere physical inquiry, and, penetrating the mind of the sufferer, to give him balm for the secret canker that may be gnawing at his soul. In more instances than people dream of, the physical ailment is but the offspring of some painful mental idea which has become intensified to such a degree, and has produced such a tax upon the nervous energy of the frame, that general vitality succumbs. In such cases the skilful physician will strive to discover the hidden enemy, to battle with and overcome it. These ends he may attain if he be not wanting in sagacity of mind, gentleness of disposition, and capability of expressing sympathy and consolation. But let the reader suppose the patient we have been imagining placed under different conditions—imagine him attended by one who though versed in physic is ignorant of human nature, and knows not those intricate ways to the heart of man which to men familiar with them lead on to the stronghold of that worst of foes—Disease. What a melancholy contemplation! A sad reflection truly—yet, one for which we think a candid and impartial review of the present scheme of medical education must supply materials.

Regarding as medical men all those who are engaged in the diagnosis and treatment of disease, we find that they may be conveniently ranged under four heads—doctors, physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries. The first are graduates of Universities, and alone have the right to affix the letters M.D. to their names; the second are licentiates of certain corporate bodies, known as Colleges of Physicians; the third emanate from the Colleges of Surgeons; and the fourth are licentiates of corporations, such as the Society of Apothecaries. The Universities (with the exception of that of London) require that candidates for medical degrees shall have studied in their own schools or one of their colleges, when there are more than one. The other licensing bodies are content that those who are proceeding to their diplomas shall pursue a definite course of study at some generally-recognised medical school. In all cases the student is expected to have spent from three to four years in the pursuit of medical knowledge, and, with a few exceptions, to have had some general education prior to the commencement of his professional studies. Practically these are the essential conditions.

Let us now inquire what is the nature of the preliminary and professional branches of education? If the student is about to become an undergraduate in a University, he is obliged to pass what is termed an entrance or matriculation examination; and, in some instances, as, for example, in some of the older Universities, he is forced to graduate B.A. in arts ere he can proceed to the degree of M.D. The commoner custom, however, is for the student to commence his professional curriculum as soon as he has "passed" his entrance ordeal. The extent of general information which he possesses at this period is, therefore, all that is required of him. It would, of course, be supposed by those unacquainted with the matter, that this matriculation test must necessarily be one of great severity, since it refers to all that an educated member of society should be expected to know. Alas! it is quite otherwise. The candidate for entrance is asked to construe a little Homer or Xenophon, to translate a couple of passages from Horace or Virgil; is, probably, questioned regarding the Roman Commonwealth and the present name of the Pontus Euxinus, and is then sent on his way, rejoicing that he has no more school-work to accomplish, and is free to flesh his virgin scalpel, untrammelled by the slightest disturbing thought of literature. This is how the first grand step is accomplished in Universities where a degree in arts is not the necessary preface to one in medicine. The preliminary examination required by the licensing bodies is, in many cases, of a still lower grade. The schoolboy is often ushered into his medical career, with a smattering of Greek and Latin, which he is certain to lose ere he completes his technical studies, and often with an utter ignorance of the simplest grammatical principles of the very language in which he expresses his ideas. It might be thought that, in after years, he would have an opportunity of at least cultivating an acquaintance with the English language and literature. But such a notion is delusive. While he is a student of medicine, his brain is more than taxed by reason of the novelty and number of the subjects upon which he has to concentrate his attention; and, once he has attained his degree or diploma, the cares of life fall thick and



fast upon him, and he has little time for any self-culture beyond that which is associated with his professional engagements.

Having traced the student from the "school" to the dissecting-room, we may now glance at the scheme of study which lies before him. He is expected, let us say, to spend four years in the endeavour to acquire a knowledge of those professional branches upon which he will be examined for his license or degree. How are these four years spent? In attendance on lectures and in the wards of the hospital. Commencing his labours at about nine in the morning, the student makes his appearance at the bedside; and, following the physician or surgeon, as the case may be, he passes from patient to patient, learning the history of each case, its progress, mode of diagnosis and treatment. Two or three hours having been spent in this way, he presents himself in the dissecting-room, and spends an hour in listening to an anatomical demonstration; then, perhaps, he may have an hour for luncheon, and after that he sits in the lecture-theatre, and possibly has inflicted on him two or three different lectures upon medicine, surgery, or some of the collateral sciences. So ends the day; and during the evening it is *presumed* that he gives himself up to study. In this manner he "plods his weary way" onwards for four years, till he presents himself for examination. Is it to be wondered at, if, under these circumstances, students should come to regard the whole process of doctor-making as a very tedious routine? We think not. There is, however, an additional reason why he should come to consider the entire system a mere matter of form or ceremony which it is necessary to go through. The present lecture system is a thoroughly rotten one, useless to the student as a means of instruction, and calculated rather to depress his interest in his pursuits than to excite it. According to existing regulations, it is not required that he shall listen to a single sentence the lecturer utters. It may seem to those unacquainted with medical teaching that this statement is exaggerated. It is not. We contend that, according to the requirements of the licensing bodies, all that is necessary for the student is a certificate showing that he has attended in the theatre of the school during the hours of the delivery of the lectures. What a farce this must appear to the general public, yet it is simply and exactly the truth; and we know of one instance in which a student informed a lecturer that he merely wanted his certificate, and did not intend to pay any attention to the subject of the lectures. All these evil consequences result from the fact that the licensing corporations merely require the student to present his certificates, and consider their examination as affording a proper judgment of his knowledge of his profession.

The student is, after all, but a mortal, and being aware that he need not be acquainted with the subjects embraced by his curriculum till he "goes up" for examination, he procrastinates. At last, however, as the fatal period approaches, he is fain to call in the assistance of a "coach," or "grinder," and get "crammed" for his "first" or "second." Herein lies the great detriment to the profession, that, without having any really practical knowledge of either medicine or surgery, the student, with the adventitious aid we have referred to, can elude the efforts of his examiners to detect his ignorance. If the examination was of an eminently practical description, then the danger would be greatly diminished; but this seldom happens. Indeed, more frequently the test is applied by a number of effete practitioners, who put to the candidate a few *vivâ voce* questions more calculated to betray their own ignorance of the modern progress of science than to exhibit the extent of the student's information.

Of course, there are students who graduate, or receive their diploma under more satisfactory circumstances; but these, we regret to say, are the minority. A further objection to the existing scheme arises from the circumstance that some of the licensing bodies examine candidates for their diplomas in but three or four out of the entire range of subjects upon which they have attended lectures, and the student, knowing this beforehand, makes his arrangements accordingly. Looking at the brighter side of the picture, we see a student well grounded in medicine and surgery, and ignorant of most other things; whilst, if we regard the gloomy aspect, we behold a miserable charlatan, ignorant alike of his profession and of general knowledge, and let loose upon society as an accomplished follower of the *Ars medendi*.

Such is a slight sketch of the method of medical education as it is. In our next number we will consider what reform that expensive institution, the General Medical Council, is likely to effect in it.

#### THE CASE OF RICHARD GIBSON.

OUR readers cannot have forgotten the shocking case of the pauper, Richard Gibson, to which we have already, on more than one occasion, called their attention. Gibson was admitted, on the 9th of last June, into the workhouse of the united parishes of St. Giles-in-the-Fields and St. George, Bloomsbury, and was placed in one of the sick wards in consequence of his suffering from a sore leg. This subsequently got much worse, and the poor fellow was reduced, not so much by his malady as by the gross and scandalous neglect of the workhouse authorities, to so frightful a state that it is impossible to read without physical loathing and horror the condition in which he was found by those to whom his miseries were made known a short time before his decease. On the 10th of February in the present year, he died, and since then the conduct of the master of the workhouse, the medical man, the nurse, and the assistant-nurses, has been made the subject of an official investigation by Mr. Farnall, inspector of the Poor Law Board. The evidence taken during that investigation fully confirmed the original statements made, in a letter to Sir Thomas Henry, the chief magistrate at Bow-street, by Felix Magee, an invalid pauper occupying the same ward as Gibson; and the letter of Lord Enfield, the Secretary of the Poor-Law Board, to the vestry-clerk of St. Giles's, expresses the conviction of the general public in condemning the conduct of the workhouse officials as disgraceful. "The Board," says Lord Enfield, "have very carefully considered the depositions of the several witnesses who gave evidence at the investigation, and they consider that it has been clearly established that the deceased was left in a disgraceful state of neglect, as regards his personal cleanliness, for some time before his death. It appears that, in addition to being neglected in this respect, he was kept in a ward intended for convalescents, which is not provided with the conveniences necessary for bedridden patients; and it is further to be inferred that he was not supplied with suitable and sufficient nourishment and stimulants." For this neglect, the Board very properly hold Mrs. Elson, the paid nurse, and Dr. Craig, the assistant medical officer in charge of the patients during the temporary absence from illness of Mr. Bennett, the chief attendant, responsible in the higher degree. Mrs. Elson was at the head of the assistant pauper nurses, and was paid for the efficient discharge of her duties, and Dr. Craig was bound to inquire daily into the condition of his patients, and to see that they received proper care and nourishment. It is evident that neither could have given the requisite degree of attention to the unhappy man who lay for weeks on that bed of agony and terrible decay, insufficiently fed, entirely uncared for, and left to the unutterable influences of filth and unchecked disease. Either they did not perform their duties of inspection at all, or they were heartlessly indifferent to the sufferings which were only too evident to all who entered the ward. They could not have been ignorant of the condition of poor Gibson, except by a thorough neglect of the work which they were paid to perform; and indeed the evidence of Dr. Craig, which we criticized on a former occasion, was marked by a shocking levity, which shows how utterly unfit he is for the duties he undertook during Gibson's last illness. The only thing which can be said in extenuation of the conduct of this gentleman is that for a week before the death of the unfortunate pauper he was himself suffering from premonitory symptoms of typhus fever; but the neglect had been going on for a much longer period, and it is evident from Dr. Craig's self-incriminatory admissions that he had taken no pains to ascertain the sick man's actual condition, or to see whether he was provided with nourishment, medicine, and tendance proper to his state. It is impossible, therefore, to question the justice of the requisition conveyed by the Board to the directors of the workhouse, that they will require "Dr. Craig and Mrs. Elson at once to resign their respective offices as assistant medical officer and nurse."

But the Board do not content themselves with casting the blame solely on the shoulders of the two persons more immediately concerned; they also censure Mr. Rankley, the master of the workhouse, and disallow his plea in extenuation, that "the infirmary has always been considered to be under the special care of the medical officer of the workhouse and the nurses," and that therefore he was not chargeable with its supervision. The Board "will in future hold him strictly responsible for the state and management of the infirmary." This is perfectly just and sensible. The master of a workhouse is clearly charged with a general superintendence of the whole; and to allow him to plead ignorance of the condition of one of the most important departments, would be to render his office



an absurdity, and to open the door to wide, deep, and systematic evil.

While such cases occur in our workhouses, and while Bethnal Green and other poor localities have almost every month their tale of parochial neglect and cruelty, can we wonder that the poor feel that intense horror at going into "the house" which Mr. Dickens has depicted with such touching truthfulness in the character of old Betty Higden in the novel he is now publishing? Is it a marvel that they should consent to starve outright in their wretched garrets and cellars (as we know they do every winter, as surely as winter comes), rather than submit to the cruelties of masters, doctors, and nurses? As long as the destitute are defrauded of their rights, and treated with less humanity than a costermonger treats his donkey, they will "avoid the workhouse," as a poor woman recently avowed that she herself did on principle; and as long as they forego the assertion of their legal claims, we shall find it impossible to put down mendicancy, which, often associated as it is with imposture, is sometimes the only resource left to the Richard Gibsons who are unable to work, yet dread the parish as more hard-hearted than the streets.

#### LONDON DOGS.

THE recent complaint of canine ravages, by which more than 6,000 sheep were killed or worried to death last year in Ireland, has elicited a not untimely remonstrance on the subject of London dogs. In a letter which appeared in the *Times* a few days ago, the writer expressed his belief that there were upwards of 50,000 owners or keepers of dogs in this metropolis who avoid payment of the annual twelve shillings duty. We cannot say from what source this gentleman has derived his figures, but if the statement is based on anything like reliable statistics, it is evident that the revenue is thus yearly defrauded of a legitimate source of income amounting to £30,000. That, however, is a question which we will leave for Mr. Gladstone's consideration, and to the conscience of a philocynical public. Perhaps some of those mysterious arrears of tax which ever and anon the Chancellor of the Exchequer is called on to acknowledge may proceed from the pockets of these defaulters. It is just possible that some fond but parsimonious spinsters, who had long cherished a French poodle or Maltese terrier in secret, may suddenly awake to a sense of their responsibility and pay up all that is due to Government on behalf of Fiddle or Carlo, who thenceforth are free to bark as much as they please whenever the collector makes his appearance at the hall door. But it is to be feared that, as a rule, untaxed dogs remain always untaxed; and, still worse, that they are too frequently unlogged. The number of stray and homeless dogs wandering about London at the present time is prodigious. Lean and miserable in appearance, these unfortunate creatures abjectly slink from door to door and from street to street, and generally select with remarkable sagacity the poorest neighbourhoods for their wandering, because it is in these localities alone that they can expect to find a humble meal from the refuse bones and odd scraps which are occasionally thrown out into the roadway. Should any one of the wanderers by chance find itself in a cleaner and more respectable thoroughfare, it will be seen hastily trotting along close to the wall, casting abject glances at the passers-by, as if conscious of its utter degradation; or it will roll its weary limbs together on some door-step and try to find rest, if it cannot obtain nourishment, for its emaciated body. Where these poor outcasts hail from, whose property they have been, and how they came to be deserted, are questions which—considering the vast amount of human misery existing in great towns—it is hardly worth while to discuss. It is sufficient to know that this evil is on the increase, and that for the sake of humanity, public decency, and even public safety, a remedy should be provided.

A year or two ago much surprise and amusement were occasioned by the announcement that a "Home for Destitute and Homeless Dogs" had been provided at Islington. Every quadruped of this kind found astray, and of whatever kind or sort, from the finest St. Bernard mastiff down to the humblest mongrel cur, might, if conveyed by any charitable person to the refuge, find food and shelter until its owner could be discovered. It is needless to say that dogs of any value, consigned to this repository, were claimed without delay, and it is to be hoped a liberal remuneration was in such cases paid for their temporary board and lodging. But, as might be supposed, the majority of pensioners were not of a very aristocratic breed. The fanciers of St. Giles and Whitechapel are far too numerous

and vigilant to allow a good Skye terrier or Italian greyhound to roam long without a master. But of half-bred, nondescript curs there was soon an ample collection, and these, if unclaimed after a certain interval, were duly priced and sold to new masters. We believe the institution has survived the ridicule with which it was at first assailed, and though it savours of the Quixotic, many schemes have been less deserving of public support. No doubt the care of our fellow-creatures should be the first consideration of philanthropy, but that is no reason why the most faithful and intelligent of domestic animals should be neglected. Even the Act of Parliament, which will always be associated with the noble exertions of Martin, was insufficient to prevent dogs from being used for draught during many years after it was passed, and though the society which was then formed has since protected them from open and direct cruelty, it has, we believe, taken no steps to afford them shelter.

There is, however, a stronger and more important reason why canine vagrancy should be put down. The dog of a recognised owner in any station of life, if it be housed at all, is generally clean, and always well fed. Provided it gets sufficient exercise and is not unduly pampered, it is liable to few diseases beyond that of distemper in its youth and the natural decrepitude of old age. At all events, should any more serious disorder make its appearance, the dog's master and other inmates of the house become speedily aware of the fact, and are in a position to take all precautions necessary for its health and their own safety. Should it become incurable, or should any real danger be apprehended, it is generally killed—an act dictated both by humanity and prudence. But no one knows in what state of health a wandering, strange, and ill-nourished cur may be. It has been exposed to every inclemency of the weather. It has, perhaps, been reduced by a state of semi-starvation to feed on the most noxious garbage. It may be infected with that terrible malady which can be communicated in an instant from brute to man, and for which no specific has yet been devised. Doctors may differ on the pathology and treatment of hydrophobia, but most medical authorities agree that the patient into whose system the poison has once been transmitted can only escape death by a miracle. Last week, Mr. Payne, the coroner, held an inquiry respecting the death of a boy named Duffy. The father of this unfortunate lad said that three months ago his son was walking up Chancery-lane, and while turning into Holborn was seized by a dog, who fastened on his right hand, and would not let it go until beaten off by a man. The deceased had some meat in a paper in his left hand at the time the dog rushed at him. His hand was so lacerated that he was taken into a chemist's shop and attended to; he afterwards became an out-patient of the hospital, and recovered to all appearance completely, the wound having healed over. Last Friday, however, his eyes stared. He could not drink water, although he tried to suck it through a straw. Dr. G. Ross, of Farringdon-street, said that he was called in to the deceased on Monday, and found him lying on the bed, foaming at the mouth, and wiping the saliva off with the back of his hands. He was cold and damp, the face and hands being of a dusky red colour. The symptoms were so peculiar that he (Dr. Ross) at first imagined it might be a case of Russian pestilence, until he ascertained that the boy had been bitten by a dog three months ago. The deceased complained of choking in the throat and other pains. He died at length of undoubted hydrophobia, and the jury returned a verdict to that effect.

This case is too melancholy to need comment, but, it is to be feared, not so exceptional as might be supposed. In large towns dogs are peculiarly subject to this disease, and it is unfortunately in large towns that dogs, either through accident or wilful negligence, are allowed to wander at liberty. Without adopting the popular belief that hydrophobia is more prevalent in summer than in winter, which medical experience has proved to be a mistake, it is not irrational to suppose that in hot weather these animals are more likely to be irritable and more likely to be at large. We therefore trust that the police regulations, which formerly obliged every dog to be muzzled, will be re-enforced as midsummer advances. In addition to this, an excellent suggestion has been made which, if duly carried out, would go far to mitigate the present evil. The possessor of every dog should be compelled to provide it with a collar, on which his name and address are legibly engraved. Let it be clearly understood that all dogs which come astray without this distinctive mark of ownership shall be given up to the police (who should have discretionary power either to destroy them or consign them to the "Home"), and we venture to predict that the public will be relieved from much inconvenience and possible danger.



## OUR UNIVERSITY LETTER.

CAMBRIDGE.

THE election to the Rectory of Ovington last week resulted in a very easy victory for Mr. Evans of King's College. A large number of the resident members of the University regretted that Mr. Guillemard had not been earlier in the field, although the present rector is a most excellent man for the place. It was felt, also, that when the contest had practically narrowed itself to a struggle between two candidates, a comparison of promises might have saved much trouble and expense to the non-resident members of the Senate. With so large a majority on one side (200 out of 600 votes polled), it seems now that it was unnecessary for all the 350 non-residents who recorded their votes to come up from their country parishes, or wherever their work might lie. This contest has called general attention to the new plan of "voting papers," by which future elections of representatives for the University in Parliament will be conducted. In Cambridge there seems to be but one feeling, namely, that members elected by the large and scattered constituency which "the Senate" comprises, will not—at any rate as a matter of course—represent the views of those who take a personal interest and share in the proceedings of the University. In former times, if a country M.A. did not care enough about the matter to come up and record his vote, he had no part in the election; but now, under the new system of voting by papers transmitted through the post, every one, however little he cares for the present state of his University, will be able to affect the election, and—what is worse—will give his vote with that feeling of irresponsibility which is involved in the idea of acting from a distance. Besides, it is a very good thing for the resident body to be stirred up now and then by an influx of old friends with new thoughts. Anything which forces us to take cognisance of the manner in which our internal proceedings strike the minds of those who look on from the outside, must be of some benefit, especially to a body so delightfully blind as a University has the power of being. It is true that during this week we have seen strangers enough to last for two or three years; but their talk has been all of concerts, and flower-shows, and balls, and boat-races, rather than of anything which can open our eyes to what we are doing.

A singular and lamentable instance of narrow-mindedness occurred at the last Congregation. It was proposed to the Senate that the common seal should be affixed to a letter of condolence with the American people on the occasion of the murder of their late President. All such things are originated by the Council, and by them put before the Senate, which can accept or reject, but cannot modify, or in any way alter, the terms of what is offered for its opinion. It is rather a clumsy method of conducting business, but possibly it is the best of the various bad plans which were suggested at the time of the University Commission. If a mistake is made by the Council, the Senate has the remedy in its own hands, and can at once reject the proposal. But there are some cases in which a mistake cannot be remedied with decency after it has once been made, and there are men, unfortunately, who have been so little knocked about in the world that they are not practically aware of this. It was an open question whether it was right in the first instance for a University to mix itself up with such matters as the troubles of the American people, but Oxford had almost left it out of our power to abstain from taking action, by itself addressing a letter of condolence to Mr. Adams. At any rate, the Council, advisedly or unadvisedly—most men here think advisedly—offered a letter to the Senate. The only possible course for any man of common sense, however much he might disagree with the Council in his estimate of the judiciousness of their step, was, not to oppose the passing of the grace. Lord Derby's words in the House of Lords, expressive of his earnest hope that no voice would on any ground—technical or otherwise—be raised against the address proposed by the Government, might have taught the seven men who voted against the grace in what light their conduct would be viewed by dispassionate people. The *Times* very discreetly burked the fact that the grace was opposed; but, of course, other papers, more accurately or less prudently informed, published the fact. The American people may come to hear of what has been done, for we are bound not to take refuge in the idea that we are a body of so little importance that the details of our proceedings on a matter of such intense interest to the American mind will not be known. There may be something in the malcontent cry that "Council is always going wrong," there may have been a want of classic elegance in the letter submitted to the Senate, though, under the circumstances, it evaded sundry difficulties in a not ungraceful way,—and, if it had not been for the line taken by Oxford, there might have been great doubt as to the wisdom of the course adopted by the Council; but it really was a case where the opposition might have had the sense and good taste—one may almost say, the decency—to abstain from a public expression of their disapproval.

A Syndicate has been appointed to discuss the vexed question of lecture-rooms for the Professors of Theology and *Litteræ humaniores*. If the University had the money, the completion of the Library quadrangle would be in all ways an advisable plan for meeting the present difficulty, and it might safely be left to future centuries to make new arrangements when the Library outgrows its now increased accommodation. The University is a good deal hampered by the circumstances under which the fund at its disposal, which is insufficient for the purpose of completing the quadrangle, came into its hands. By an arrangement of the Com-

mission, £700 or £800 a year will be taken from the endowment of the Lady Margaret Professorship at the next vacancy, and added to the present insignificant stipend of the Norrisian Professor, and the Lady Margaret Professor has very generously made over this yearly sum to the University for such purposes as he and they may agree upon. That it is to be devoted to a Divinity school has been determined, but the precise manner in which it is to be laid out is still a difficulty. The new Museums contain an abundance of lecture-rooms, but it is only natural that a Greek Professor should not like to deliver himself of his elegances in the sort of atmosphere which a practical Chemistry Professor is wont to leave behind him; nor do the Divinity Professors like the idea of lecturing in a room surrounded by anatomical specimens, to call off men's attention, or half blocked up by the stage properties of their botanist or mechanical colleagues. There is a site in front of the new Museums, and if it is selected, those terrible excrescences will be hidden from the street,—an argument which ought to settle the controversy.

Professor Tyndall delivered his lecture on "Radiation" in the Senate House on Tuesday last, being Sir Robert Rede's lecturer for 1865. The audience was large and attentive, and the lecture most excellent, both in matter and manner. The galleries were crowded with undergraduates, whose conduct was most exemplary, and every one seemed to be much interested by the facts and experiments of the professor. It was impossible for him to say much about the spectrum without alluding to the successful researches of Professor Stokes, and every such allusion brought down rounds of applause from the galleries and the body of the building alike, much to the confusion of the Lucasian professor, who was present. The famous paper of Mr. William Hopkins, the retired Esquire Bedell, on the part played by the vapours of the atmosphere in confining the radiant heat which the earth receives from the sun, and which it is prevented by those vapours from throwing out again into space, was of necessity alluded to, with a like result. The galleries were immensely delighted when Professor Tyndall appealed to their sympathies in one of his experiments. He was engaged in showing how completely certain substances stop all luminous rays, but allow the calorific rays—the invisible heat, amounting to nine-tenths of the whole amount of heat emitted from any source of heat and light—to pass freely through, and to be collected into a focus by a lens in the same manner as ordinary light-rays are collected by a burning glass. After producing magical effects by putting various combustible materials into this invisible focus of invisible heat, such as matches, paper, wood, zinc, &c., he brought out with much ceremony a dark roll of some mysterious substance, with which he said it was probable that none of his audience were acquainted. One end of this he applied to the exact point in space where experience had taught his audience that an invisible source of intense heat was resident, and then, putting his lips to the other end, he suddenly appeared with a lighted cigar in his mouth. At the close of the lecture, Professor Sedgwick rose, and with a voice which—in spite of his eighty years—drowned the noise of the moving crowd, returned hearty thanks to Professor Tyndall, and called down as hearty a round of cheers from the gallery. On the whole, a good many of the audience seemed to wish that some more Sir Robert Redes would take it into their heads to endow lectures.

If you could send down a Court journalist, he would provide you with a few columns of particulars respecting the bazaar (for the Peterborough Training College), with its aristocratic saleswomen and supporters, the concerts, the flower show, the A. D. C. (amateur dramatics), and—the University journalist writes it with a shriek—the ball which follows the performance of the A. D. C. A most important document has been issued in the midst of all this unscholastic turmoil, and it is to be hoped that it will be able to compete with the secular gaieties of the place, and will receive some amount of careful attention. It is the Report of the Examination Syndicate, the best Report that has as yet been made. There are men who will *non-placet* everything—witness the Lincoln letter; but I should suppose that this Report will be accepted and acted on. The main features are:—"Little go" in the third term, the Michaelmas Term; an examination, corresponding to the present "ordinary B. A. examination," in the fifth term, the Easter Term of the second year; and, finally, a special examination in theology, or moral science, or law, or natural science, or mechanism and practical science, in the ninth term, the Easter Term of the third year. When I say in the third, fifth, and ninth terms, I mean that candidates must have kept at least two, four, and eight terms respectively. Of minor details, one remarkable feature of the proposed scheme is the introduction of Latin and English prose composition into the general examination in the fifth term. If the scheme meets with the approval of the Senate, very great and comprehensive changes must be made in the tutorial arrangements of the colleges, and no doubt the opportunity will be seized for effecting many necessary improvements.

On Saturday week, the Ven. Bishop of Exeter entered on the eighty-ninth year of his age. He is still in excellent general health and unimpaired intellect, although his physical strength has diminished of late.—*Western Morning News*.

It has been remarked that on the 14th of April Orsini, Charlotte Corday, Ravallac, and Booth committed their crimes.

DR. JENNER has been decorated by the King of the Belgians with his own hands with the commandership of the Order of Leopold.



## THE "LONDON REVIEW" CHURCH COMMISSION.

No. VII.—DIOCESE OF WINCHESTER—(continued).

FROM Portsmouth we turn to the extreme northern portion of the diocese of Winchester—the crowded districts of Lambeth and the Borough, stretching from Vauxhall-bridge to the parishes of Rotherhithe and Bermondsey, including the parish of St. George's, Southwark. Here every specimen may be found of care and assiduity on the part of the parochial clergy in the performance of their duties, combined with the greatest neglect on the part of the higher Church authorities and the most infamous indifference and cruelty on the part of the Government. Abject suffering and poverty, the most beautiful Christian feeling mixed up with utter degradation and immorality, the most healthy specimens of charity and the most heartless selfishness and tyranny, may here be found, mingled together in the most extraordinary and incongruous manner. A more promising field for the vigilance of the Church could not well be imagined. For vice abounds here; not the vice which springs from infidelity, as some have stated, but that which grows up almost of necessity out of the fertile soil of human misery. If we find a vast population herding together under physical conditions incompatible with the common decencies of life; if we see adults, of either sex, crowded by night into the same room; if children, boys and girls, are intermingled with them—the good with the bad, the pure with the impure, the religious with the profane, those who hold the name of God in reverence with those who only use it to blasphemy; if we find superadded to these corrupting influences the temptations of want, the impossibility of cleanliness, an atmosphere in the wretched homes of thousands which makes the bar of the gin-palace a paradise, and its stimulants for the moment a life-renewing draught—maddening and degrading as they are in the result; we know for a certainty that the vast majority of the people who are living under these conditions must be leading lives which are a scandal to a Christian community, an offence to Heaven, and a reproach to the civilization of the age. Man is composed of two elements, body and soul. The one cannot become degraded and the other remain pure, and it is just as much the duty of the Church to labour for the well-being of the bodies of her children as it is to labour for the sanctification of their souls. In vain will she preach to them upon the beauty of religion, and upon their obligations to God, if she leaves them physically in the condition of beasts; if she looks on without a protest upon the part of her bishops against that inhuman system which for years past has been pulling down the houses of the poor, and driving thousands of wretched families into neighbourhoods which are overcrowded, where they go to swell a population who are in excess of the tenements provided for them, and to increase those conditions of vice and immorality and irreligion which, Heaven knows, need no augmentation. We have been improving London at the cost of the poor, and the Church has been silent. New streets have been opened up, and disreputable neighbourhoods cleared; railways have been brought almost to our doors, and magnificent hotels at the terminus of each have sprung up to minister to the convenience, and comfort, and luxury of the rich; and we say, "See what strides Progress is making amongst us; how our commerce is expanding; what triumphs is our civilization achieving for us!" But we have not heard the Right Rev. Bench warning us at what a frightful cost all this is being done. We have not heard them protesting against innovations, unaccompanied by any corrective measures, which are rendering the work of the Church in the densely-populated neighbourhoods of Southwark and Lambeth almost an impossibility. In the face of an oppression which is crushing thousands of the poor, body and soul, they have been silent. And thus the seething mass of vice and misery, of ignorance and crime, seethes on—in sight of the archiepiscopal palace; nay, at its very doors—a source almost of despair to the local clergy, whose utmost toil can do but comparatively little to lessen it.

Let us for a moment glance at what has been done of late years in the way of pulling down the houses of the poor, without any exertion made to provide them with other homes; and then we shall leave our readers to say whether this is a matter which concerns the Church, and which should be passed over in silence by her bishops. Before the formation of New Oxford-street, although certain portions of the Borough were densely populated, there still remained in the neighbourhood of St. George's-fields and Bermondsey many

large open spaces unappropriated. From the ejections which then took place, many thousands of the poor were driven into the districts of Holborn, Field-lane, and the congeries of lanes, alleys, and courts which were then to be found on the ground now known as New Farringdon-street, and comprising the present terminus of the Metropolitan Railway. It would be difficult in words to convey an idea of the horrible state of the locality, when the attention of the municipal authorities was called to the subject. Misery, disease, and demoralization were its principal characteristics, and, after great deliberation, it was decided that the only way to redeem the neighbourhood from its pollution was by one sweeping work of destruction and ejection under the name of improvement. This resolution once arrived at, the plan of operation was soon decided on. The roadway for the new street was formed, and a flood of pauperism, comprising many thousand individuals, was driven over to the Surrey side of the water, while some forty or fifty acres of land, previously thickly populated, in the very centre of the metropolis, were laid bare, and for at least five-and-twenty years have been known in the locality as the Farringdon-street wastes. This was the first grand *coup* of "improvement." But this injustice on the part of the City authorities, not only to the poor, but to the ratepayers, on the Surrey side of the river, was further increased by the formation of New Cannon-street and other City improvements, which were purposely planned to go through the districts most crowded with the working classes, and a fresh immigration of the poor took place in consequence into the different parishes of the borough of Southwark. So systematic has been the policy of the City authorities in ejecting their working classes, that notwithstanding the enormous increase of mercantile requirements for labour in the City union which comprises that portion of London, there were at the last census 20,000 fewer of the working classes than it contained in the census of the year 1801.

The first Surrey parishes which suffered from this continued influx of poor into them were those of Christ Church, Blackfriars, which, stretching as they did along the river-side from the Blackfriars-road to High-street in the Borough, naturally received all those who were employed on the wharves or river-side factories and warehouses. As these parishes thus became poorer, the richer inhabitants left them, and the poverty of the neighbourhood became still greater in proportion. When Christ Church and St. Saviour's were filled to overflowing, the still continuing stream of poor immigrants passed over into St. George's, Southwark, Bermondsey, and Rotherhithe, and these parishes were in their turn filled by them till not another habitation could be found conveniently to receive them. Ten years ago the state of poverty in St. George's, Southwark, almost drove the parochial authorities to distraction. Mr. John Day, the then vestry clerk, in a letter he wrote to one of the morning papers (the *Morning Advertiser*, we believe), said: "I will give you a proof of our poverty. We possess a local act, which allows us to remit the amount of poors'-rate due from any parishioner, if the applicants can bring forward sufficient proofs they are themselves in poverty. At the last meeting of the Board of Guardians several women applied to have their poors'-rate remitted on the plea of poverty. After hearing the first applicant, a guardian said to her, 'But have you no furniture you can raise money upon?' 'I have not, sir,' said the woman, placing a handful of pawnbrokers' duplicates on the table; 'I have, as you may judge by these, pawned almost everything I've got.' The fine was remitted, and the next applicant appeared. 'I am afraid,' said the guardian, 'we cannot entertain your claim.' 'Why not, sir?' said the woman, 'you let off Mrs. X—— just now, and I'm as poor as she is.' 'Very likely,' said the guardian, 'but she has already pledged her furniture.' 'And I,' replied the woman, 'for months past have had nothing worth pawning.' Mr. Day, in the same letter, added that it was no uncommon occurrence in the parish for the registered occupier of a house to be summoned for the poors'-rate, a portion of whose lodgers were at the time receiving out-door parochial relief. Thus in Southwark we find householders beggared by the immigration which had been caused by the improvements in the City. In Bermondsey we find another evidence of its effects in the Registrar General's Report for 1858. From that document we learn that the deaths from typhus—that modern plague of our overcrowded districts—to all causes was as 1 to 17. The better to estimate this proportion, it should be compared with that of a wealthier parish at the same date—Marylebone, for example—where it was as 1 to 57. The deaths from zymotic diseases, those principally affecting the poor, were at that date greater in Bermondsey than in any other parish in London.

Such was the state of these parishes six or seven years ago, and our readers may suppose that the work of overcrowding, with



all its attendant miseries, had been carried to the utmost limit. But such an idea would be erroneous. There was yet a lower deep into which they were to sink by the process of "improvement" and at the behests of "Progress." A few years ago, a new street was projected to facilitate the traffic on the Surrey side of the river from Westminster-bridge to the Borough. The Metropolitan Board decided on continuing Stamford-street through the densely-crowded neighbourhood between the Borough and Blackfriars-road. Did the parochial authorities of Christ Church Union object that this measure would turn hundreds of the poor out of their homes? Did they petition Parliament or the Board of Works that the work of destruction should be accompanied by the rearing of new buildings—model lodging-houses—in which these poor families might find shelter? Did they do so when, subsequently, the Charing-cross Railway, running almost parallel with the new street, was projected; or when, a short time afterwards, the extension of the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway to the City was decided upon? Indeed, they did nothing of the kind. One after another, they gave these "improvements" their cordial support, and they did so on the express ground that they would lessen their rates. "We shall get rid of the poor by thousands," said one of the overseers to us at the time; "and our poor's-rates, in a few years' time, will not be a quarter of what they are now." He was right. The lines of all these projects ran through the poorest districts of the parish, and in order to accomplish them, upwards of 6,000 of the poor were driven from their homes, and went to increase the already overflowing population of Bermondsey and St. George's, Southwark, though in the latter parish, before it received its share of this immigration, the poor's-rate was six shillings in the pound. In the East, when the plague lights upon the inhabitants of any district, they do not pray that Allah will remove it altogether, but that he will cause it to pass over to the next city. This is exactly the principle upon which the parochial authorities—"Guardians" and "overseers" of the poor forsooth!—of Christ Church Union acted. The poor were their plague, and they moved heaven and earth, and successfully, to throw the burden of their support upon the neighbouring parishes. What has been the effect of this selfish, cruel, and most irreligious policy? In the district of Kent-street the Rev. Mr. Amos, the incumbent, informed us that the rent of each room in the miserable hovels and courts of that locality has risen sixpence a week. In many four-roomed houses we found it was no uncommon occurrence for sixteen or eighteen adults to be nightly lodged together, with water and other accommodations scarcely sufficient for one family. This district, moreover, has for years past contributed a greater number of young thieves to the Philanthropic Society's Farm Schools at Red Hill, and other reformatories, than any other portion of the metropolis, taking into consideration the number of the inhabitants; and its female degeneracy is equally great. It is of little use inculcating morality in ragged and Sunday schools, when to every lesson they receive there they have at least three in immorality at home. The district of St. Michael's, Lant-street, at the back of the Queen's Bench Prison, is in an equally bad or even more deplorable condition. We have before us a letter written by Dr. Rendle, until recently the medical officer of health of the parish, and a gentleman who has laboured hard to increase the temporal well-being of the poor inhabitants of the district. He says: "As to over-crowding, there is a steady and continued increase still going on, so that it is no uncommon occurrence to find twelve, sixteen, and twenty persons in their small four-roomed houses. In some of the poorer parts of our parish we have 400 of these houses to the acre. I have just visited fifteen small houses, with 181 inhabitants, having a water supply of 456 gallons for all purposes. One consequence of this over-crowding is fever. We have had our workhouse wards full of fever, till it positively became unsafe to visit the patients in them. One of the medical staff caught it and died, and an assistant of one of the outdoor surgeons also fell a victim to it. We have sent about 120 cases to the Fever Hospital; and three, five, and up to eight or nine cases of typhus have occurred in the same house. Last year, in 1,689 deaths, 398 were children under one year, and 743 under five years of age. This year we have lost 28 children from privation. In a paper printed by order of the House of Commons, you will find that, in our parish, in five years, we had no fewer than 289 inquests on dead children, of whom 37 were suffocated, in densely crowded localities. Our population has nearly doubled since 1830, and we were crowded then." Observe that this is but a sample of the mass. It is an evil which increases with the increase of the population, and which every now and then receives sudden and immense additions at each new stride of that

"Progress" of which we boast so loudly and so thoughtlessly. Progress for the rich certainly, but woful retrogression and debasement for the poor. Who will tell us that amongst a population thus every year more and more packed close together in their fever beds, inhaling a poisonous atmosphere, herding like beasts, of necessity contaminating one another by day and still more by night—who will tell us that amongst people living in this way we can look for chastity in the women or virtue in the men: for honesty, morality, and religion? The thing is simply impossible; and when we deplore their misconduct, their vices, their foul language and foul acts, let it in justice be remembered that it is not they who are answerable for the state in which they live, for the contamination to which they are exposed, for the pollution in the midst of which they grow up to maturity—with St. Paul's Cathedral in sight at one end of their line of desolation, and Westminster Abbey at the other.

There may be persons who will say that, bad as all this undoubtedly is, it is a necessary evil. We deny it. It is necessary, indeed, if we are to look to nothing but the opening of new streets and the multiplying of railways; if we consider only the convenience of the rich and the interests of "Progress." But if humanity, and, still more, if religion, is to govern our policy, it is not necessary. Nay, if we would look at the question in what we may term a spirit of "wise" selfishness, we should find that it is, on the contrary, very necessary that the provision of decent and cleanly homes for the poor should enter as a main element into our policy. We cannot gain, and we must lose, by the physical debility which overcrowding causes, by the number of thieves which it multiplies, by the welcome it offers to epidemics. We may resolve into a pecuniary loss to ourselves every one of its attendant evils. They manage these things better in France. But then we are a free people and will not submit to dictation. Some time ago, when speaking to an influential Radical M.P. on the subject of the destruction of the dwellings of the poor, he told us he did not see how it could be remedied. We reminded him that no street improvement could take place in Paris, without the projectors finding at least as much accommodation for the poor in some part of the city as should be equal to the number of their lodgings about to be destroyed. "None but a despotic Government," he replied, "could make a regulation of the kind; God forbid that we should ever live to see the day when such laws should be in force among us so adverse to the principles of British liberty." British liberty! Well, but even if such laws would be intolerable, is there any reason why, of our own will, and out of those sentiments of humanity on which we so pride ourselves, this act of justice should not be done? Take a lower ground; model lodging-houses will pay. Will not "Progress" which is doing so much for the rich do something for the poor? That question has been practically put, and answered in the negative. When the new street was projected from Blackfriars-road to the Borough, persons, anxious for the welfare of the poor, came forward and offered to undertake the building of model lodging-houses sufficient to accommodate the whole number of the working classes who were to be ejected. But the Metropolitan Board of Works set so exorbitant a price upon the land requisite for the site of these buildings, and threw so many other impediments in the way, that the scheme became at once impracticable. Yet it was one which the Board itself might reasonably have been expected to perform. They well knew the deplorable condition of the district through which the street was to run when they applied for a bill to sanction its formation, and could easily have obtained permission to build new habitations for the families whom they doomed to ejection. But they would neither do it themselves nor let others do it. It was not their work. They did not as a body sympathize with the poor. Their duty was simply to clear away all impediments and make the street, and to have gone out of their way to assist in an act of mercy and justice, would have been a work of supererogation in their eyes. Had they taken a more kindly and just view of their duty, not one of the six thousand ejected need have left the parish; but the majority of the members of the Metropolitan Board of Works are not only ratepayers in heavily-taxed parishes, but many of them guardians of the poor as well, and they sympathized with their brother ratepayers in the Christ Church Union in their endeavours to get rid of the incubus which weighed so heavily on them. Again, had the Metropolitan Board possessed as much feeling for the poor as they have for the convenience of the rich, they might have insisted on the Charing Cross and London, Chatham, and Dover Railway, making some provision for the families, whose dwellings they were about to destroy, under the threat of opposing their bill in Parliament. But they made not the slightest effort in that



direction. There is even now abundance of space in Bermondsey within a distance of not more than a quarter of an hour's walk from St. George's Church; and in the southern portion of Rotherhithe, ten minutes distance from the river, and opposite the Tower of London and St. Katharine's Docks, are still larger plots of land unbuilt upon, which would serve admirably for the purpose—yet it is left unaccomplished, and apparently has not even been thought of. So much for the Board of Works. The Ecclesiastical Commissioners are equally to blame; for in their hands at present is the Winchester-parkestate, which has always been one of the most distressed parts of the Borough of Southwark, and whose inhabitants have especially suffered from the late ejectments, without the slightest interference on the part of the Commissioners, beyond making the best bargain they could for the Church. This estate was, until it came into the hands of the Commissioners, under the control of the Bishop. Not in any part of the metropolis could there be found more thorough sinks of depravity than many portions of this Church estate. And how can it be otherwise? Listen to a single extract from a report of Mr. Bianchi, the medical officer of health, before the estate came into the hands of the Ecclesiastical Commissioners. After touching on several subjects connected with the demoralized state of the district, he says:—"I visited a house in a fearful state of dilapidation, in which twenty-seven persons were living in seven very small rooms. In many instances I found several adult men and women sleeping together in the same room, without its being possible, even if there had been the inclination, to make the slightest provision for decency or morality. I may here mention that in the lying-in ward of the workhouse four-fifths of those confined for the last twelve years have been young unmarried women, who have been obliged to live in the manner described."

This is a most unsatisfactory state of things, and one in which the Church is deeply concerned. In our next number we shall see that it is not the fault of the people or of the local clergy.

#### TROWBRIDGE.

We have received from the Rev. J. D. Hastings, Rector of Trowbridge, a letter, complaining of some alleged mis-statements in our report of the state of religion in that town. We have referred Mr. Hastings' letter to the writer of the article upon Trowbridge, and we have now his answer. As briefly as we can, we will give Mr. Hastings' list of mis-statements and the writer's replies.

1st. That Mr. Fulford is not Bishop of Frederickton, New Brunswick, but of Montreal. Admitted; but the mistake is immaterial.

2nd. That it is not true, as the writer asserted, that Mr. Fulford "was too short a time rector (of Trowbridge) to leave any deep or abiding influence." Mr. Hastings is thankful to say that he has left an "abiding influence" in the shape of a church and schools which he was instrumental in erecting during his incumbency. Mr. Hastings does not distinguish between an abiding influence and an abiding fact. Mr. Fulford was a High Churchman, and his failure to mould the religious tone and temper of Trowbridge was the main cause of his seeking another sphere of labour.

3rd. That it is not true that after Mr. Fulford's departure "the advowson fell into new hands, who introduced a rector of the opposite school." The gist of the writer's assertion lies in the fact that Mr. Fulford was succeeded by a rector of opposite opinions—Mr. Hastings; and it matters very little by what patron he was presented. It appears, however, that a change of patrons did take place, but subsequently to the appointment of the present rector.

4th. That it is not true that "the restoration (of the church) cost £7,500, all raised in the parish." Mr. Hastings says that the cost was considerably over that sum, and that a large portion of it was contributed by the friends of the Church throughout the country. He does not, however, state what the amount was, but our Commissioner has since been told that it was £8,000. If this is so, the difference is immaterial; and the mis-statement disappears, except so far as that portion of the cost is concerned which was raised out of the parish. But this error, which gives Mr. Hastings and his parishioners more credit than it appears they are entitled to, is not one which justifies the indignant terms in which Mr. Hastings writes. Nor indeed has the worthy rector any right at all to complain of any slight discrepancies which appear in our report, as he had ample opportunity of setting our Commissioner right before it was written. We will not, however, use his churlishness against him, but will very gladly insert here the account he gives of some other improvements which he has promoted in Trowbridge:—"First, the erection of a new church, school-house, teacher's residence, and parsonage-house at Studley, a hamlet about a mile from the town, at a cost, including endowment, of about £5,000. Next, the building of almshouses for eight aged men; building an Infant or Nursery School, which, with the purchase of seventeen or eighteen old houses for the throwing open the church and the improvement of the road at that point, was effected at a cost of £2,000. All this was raised in the parish, and contributed by all denominations. The next improvement which has been accomplished, and which I am surprised your reporter has not noticed [Mr. Hastings has no right to be surprised, for he was asked to assist our Commissioner to information, and he refused to do so], was the purchase of a Baptist chapel, converting it into a beautiful and commodious church

and which cost upwards of £2,000. Another proof of the improvement of the Church—in the year 1841 there were but two clergymen for the entire of the parish, now, when our staff is complete, we have eight."

5th. That it is not true that "the pew-renting system is rampant in Trowbridge Church." Mr. Hastings, however, admits there are "some few faculty pews," and that "a small charge is levied upon some of the seats in church"—a very indefinite statement. He denies that the proceeds belong to the rector, or form part of his income: our Commissioner did not say that they did. They are applied, he adds, towards the maintenance of the church in lieu of Church-rates, which have been discontinued—an arrangement made by Mr. Fulford, the late rector. The statement of our Commissioner was confined to the assertion that "the pew-renting system is rampant in Trowbridge Church." As the rector would give him no information, he went to the parish clerk, to whom he had been referred as the person who could give him the best information as to the pews and their occupation. The clerk told him that, as nearly as he could say, one-third of the area of the church was free, and two-thirds rented. Whether we take this statement, or the indefinite one which Mr. Hastings (who can be precise enough when he likes) has given us, it is certain that the pew-renting system is in force in Trowbridge Church; most unnecessarily, when we consider with what liberality the town has supported its rector in the improvements of which he speaks. If it will help him to build churches, it will surely help him to keep them in repair.

6th. That it is not true that "alike in church and chapel Calvinistic doctrine is so rife that it costs the town £400 per annum in lunacy." If Mr. Hastings will read again the statement of our Commissioner, he will find that he made no such complaint. Mr. Hastings has garbled the quotation so as to fix upon the writer an assertion which he only reports as having been made by some one else. Here is the whole passage:—

"Of the practical effects of that doctrine we received a very startling statement from a highly respectable medical man of long standing in Trowbridge. He holds offices which prove that he enjoys the public confidence. He assured us that the Calvinistic doctrine so rife in Trowbridge, alike in church and chapel, is often attended with the most deplorable results, even to the production of lunacy. He put it in this striking shape—'The Predestinarian doctrine taught here costs the town £400 a year in lunacy.' Such, at least, is the judgment of a very intelligent medical man, and one who has practised in Trowbridge for more than twenty years. It is a statement well worth pondering."

There is not a word here of confirmation by our Commissioner of the fact which he relates on the authority of another. But Mr. Hastings, with a want of candour which we regret, totally suppresses this circumstance, rejects the context of the words which he quotes, so as wholly to alter the passage, and then charges our Commissioner with a statement he has not made. As to the fact of the prevalence of lunacy in Trowbridge from the cause to which it has been attributed, a medical practitioner of twenty years experience of the town is much more likely to be a reliable authority than the rector. And when Mr. Hastings cites the fact that the parish paid for its lunacy cases in 1862 only £265. 19s. 10d., he forgets that this is only the direct cost of such cases. Our Commissioner informs us that his medical authority maintains his assertion.

7th. Mr. Hastings seems to think that when our Commissioner says that the rector and clergy do not favour the teetotal cause, nor attend temperance meetings, and that they discourage amusements and do not patronize penny readings, he brings a charge against them. If Mr. Hastings chooses to regard these statements in that light, he must please himself. But he does not deny them. He says, however, it is not true that one of the curates received an intimation to cease attending the penny readings. Will he explain how it happened that one of the curates who entered heart and soul into the "penny readings," and who, on one occasion, read himself, suddenly dropped all connection with them? The opinion in Trowbridge is that he received a hint to do so, in what form conveyed Mr. Hastings can perhaps explain. It is also believed by the teetotallers that the Rev. Henry Gale, a former curate of Mr. Hastings, was dismissed because he favoured the total abstinence movement. Is this belief well or ill-founded?

8th. Mr. Hastings sets our Commissioner right as to the statement that St. Stephen's, Staverton, and Studley are Church-chapels, which is correct only with regard to St. Stephen's. Again, there are three curates to the mother-church; not two.

9th. Mr. Hastings says that the number of children in the Sunday-schools attached to the five churches is 850, not 450, as our Commissioner stated. The difference is material, and we are very happy to be able to make so important a correction. But the deduction drawn by our Commissioner from the comparative numbers of children being educated by the Church and those being educated by Dissent—namely, "that the rising generation of Trowbridge receive a Dissenting training and bias, and that in an overwhelming proportion," is hardly affected by Mr. Hastings' correction. The numbers, as corrected, stand thus:—

Children in Church Sunday-schools .....	850
Children in Dissenting Sunday-schools .....	1,800

So much for Mr. Hastings.

We have received a letter from Mr. J. J. Bush challenging our Commissioner's statement as to the pulling-down of cottages in the adjacent parishes, the consequence being that an over proportion of poor are driven into Trowbridge, and the poor's-rate unduly raised: it is now 5s. 6d. in the pound. We give entire credence to the writer of this letter when speaking of the properties of which he is the agent. Mr. Bush happens to be the land-agent of one of the best landlords in Wiltshire, Mr. Walter Long, M.P. for North Wilts. He is a singularly good landlord, and needs no defence from Mr. Bush. No Wiltshire man would say a word to his discredit. But all the landlords around Trowbridge are not Walter Longs—far from it. There are those



among them who pull down cottages; and men who know the district quite as well as Mr. Bush affirm this. Mr. Bush treats 5s. 6d. as quite a proper and normal poors'-rate! He says that it has been 10s. 6d. That fully bears out our report. Mr. Bush accounts for the 5s. 6d. rate by reminding us that Trowbridge has 12,000 inhabitants. But the Bath poors'-rate is only 1s. 6d. in the pound, rarely 2s., and Bath has 60,000 inhabitants. A town with a prosperous manufacture ought to have a much lower rate than 5s. 6d. Mr. Bush may rely upon it that the solution our Commissioner suggested is the true one.

#### THE CHURCH—HER PARTIES.\*

[COMMUNICATED.]

WE last week gave a sketch of the more prominent features which distinguish the two extreme parties of the Established Church. In the one case, there is a very close approach to the creed and practice of the Church of Rome. The mode in which the public services in very many of the churches of the Anglo-Catholic party is conducted—the doctrines preached, and the discipline enforced—the nature of the ceremonial observances which are carried out in public—the disclosures made from time to time of the rule and discipline of their private religious houses—the priestly power they claim over the laity, and the extreme lengths to which they push it—the nature of the books they give to aid the devotions of their followers—leave little room to doubt that they might almost as reasonably be called Anglo-Roman as Anglo-Catholic. We cannot be called unjust towards this "party" if we assert of them that they are working with great zeal and no little success, under cover of the Established Church, to undermine as far as possible all that simplicity of worship, that purity and freedom of faith, this nation gained by the Reformation.

It is said that with a large portion of the clergy of this party, all they do is done in true honesty of purpose. It may, however, be well asked, Can this their purpose be honestly pursued by incumbents of the National Church? We are inclined to believe that in the case of very many of them, the love of power—so dominant over the human heart—influences them far more than they themselves are at all aware, especially in the case of their younger members. The church is to these as a theatre; beneath its roof they act the characters which flatter their self-importance; they are the observed of many reverential observers; the services are studies, and they are the clerical figures of the picture; in vesture and gait they are clad and move according to a part; they very often become little more than ecclesiastical machines, wound up by weak zeal to exhibit devotion, not necessarily to be devout. Within the building, in the well-practised services, surrounded by all its beautiful and exciting subsidiary properties, it is not difficult for them to work out their own ideal of the priestly character. External to it, they are for ever affording melancholy proof of their utter unfitness for that priestly rule to which they aspire.

The strongholds of both the extreme parties of the Church are in the metropolis and the larger towns; but the Anglo-Catholic is taking up a bold position in very many of the smaller towns, and is especially strong in some of the most frequented watering-places. The Evangelical party depend so much on pulpit eloquence, are content to seek such very moderate aid from things external, it is but natural that their power should be most displayed in London and amidst large populations elsewhere. Proprietary chapels, and the chaplaincies of some of the charitable institutions, are commonly their chief spheres of duty, and to these they attract large, wealthy, and earnest congregations. There are, however, many eminent men of that school, holding large benefices, and doing a great deal of earnest work, with very great success. As a party, they have always had within their ranks many of the best and truly noble men and women, who are ever in the van of every movement which seeks to propagate the Christian faith at home and abroad, and to rescue the lost and vile wherever they can be found.

The Anglican, after his own fashion, also does a great deal of purely benevolent work, spiritual and temporal, by his sisterhoods, lay brethren, religious houses for the reception of the fallen, &c.; but the agency in all these is of so exclusive a character, the literature he brings to bear on his work is of so peculiar a nature, its tendency so directed to certain ends, that his chief purpose appears to be, like that of the Roman Church, to bring the people to Church services and ordinances, and under Church discipline, rather than to teach and enforce the ordinary Protestant view of the faith and duty inculcated in the Bible. Where the path to be professed urges the believer

from day to day to depend so much on outward observances, leading him to believe that the priest and the work within the temple can do so much for him, there is not the necessity for so much extra mural teaching, and less liberty is given to independent private devotion.

The Evangelical, on the other hand, distributes tracts in thousands, Bibles in tons; lay missionaries, Bible women, Scripture readers, the mothers' meeting agency, and a whole host of earnest men and women, many of them of high rank, are ever at work, with the one aim, to produce, first, conversion to a sense of sin—this anyhow, so that it softens and enlightens the heart; then, however desirous they may be to see these converts at church, they are yet quite content to get them to any place of worship, so that therein they are taught the plain doctrines of the Gospel. It may be true that the female sex are the greatest followers of the Evangelical party; there are yet, however, a very large number of the other sex, many of them men of high mark in the world, who are regular attendants on their services. These may not, all of them, in their hearts, go the whole lengths of much of the latitudinarian preaching they thus hear; as the rule, they may have a higher appreciation for Church doctrine than the females of their families; but, having little choice between what they may hear of good doctrine, exaggerated and questionable doctrine, more simply altered, with exaggerated æsthetic accompaniment, they prefer to go close to Geneva, rather than countenance any closing with Rome.

It may be said of zeal as of fire, it is a good servant but a bad master. The most extreme Anglo-Catholic may well stand aghast, that any who have taken up first with his views should yet so lapse as to join the ranks of a Father Ignatius. The Evangelical, who has so persistently undervalued so much of the plain teaching of the Church, may well feel ashamed to know that many of his school—some fathers of families—help to swell the congregation of a certain female preacher, than whom, not long since, there was not one more notorious in the higher grade of harlotry. The impartial observer may deplore the human weakness which thus stains the best efforts of earnest men, blinding them to the dangers to which the distempered zeal of their followers is exposed, under the excitement to which their own teaching submits it. It is fortunate for mankind in the mass that there is a power which can and does work only good, where the eccentricities of antagonistic "parties" would seem to promise nothing but evil.

We will now turn our attention to that large portion of the Church machinery, which is for ever at work, in a sober but yet earnest spirit, carefully eschewing those of the doctrines and practices of Rome, which our Church, in any fair interpretation of her Articles and Canons, repudiates, giving all due weight and prominence to that doctrine and practice which she has clearly enjoined. There are in the metropolis and in many large towns men of great piety and learning, combined with sound judgment, who, keeping clear of all extremes, are doing much valuable work, as Churchmen—pure and simple. Content to refrain from any bitter denunciation of the views and practices of men distinguished for extreme opinions, they secure public services conducted reverently, and with every appreciation of all that is valuable in good instrumental and vocal aid; in buildings, on which nothing has been spared to make them worthy of their purpose; they preach sermons attractive to educated men, from their depth of thought, the excellence of the life to which they exhort, the holiness of the faith they exhibit; doing this with a simple but impressive eloquence, which arrests, as it sustains, the attention of their congregations. The Church owes a great deal to these men; not only do they attract large bodies of intellectual hearers, but their sermons will bear publication, and, being published, carry great weight, wherever read, but especially with that particular class whose refinement of mind shrinks from the more stormy eloquence and less practical doctrines of the very Low Church, as it turns with disgust from much that it regards as mere mummery in the services of the extreme High Church.

These of whom we have just spoken are men of rare gifts, and thus gifted, in a way not in these days often found in combination with a desire for earnest work, done in a quiet spirit. We pass now to that large body, the ordinary country clergy, incumbents of rural parishes. Amongst these there are, of course, some of High, others of Low Church views, a few in the extreme, in the one or the other direction; the largest proportion, however, avoid any extreme action in the way of doctrine or practice within their own parishes. The truth is, country parishes are rarely so populous as to afford that kind of extraneous aid which extreme ritual practice requires for its full development and support; the rural congregation is, in the

\* This article forms no part of the "London Review" Church Commission; and the writer alone is responsible for the opinions he expresses.



mass, of a very simple character, disinclined to adopt innovation in any shape. The less educated portion of it have no comprehension for any refined views, either in doctrine or practice; its higher class of minds have little disposition to regard with favour any innovation which may introduce practices open to dispute, or doctrines too abstruse, for the general acceptance of the poorer and less educated portion of the congregation.

In almost every diocese, we believe, clerical meetings are held, which represent in the characters of those who are members the different phases of opinion as held by the chief "parties" in the Church; but it is one thing to discuss at these meetings the propriety of introducing change of practice, it is felt to be quite another thing to enforce any such changes which may be approved.

It cannot, however, be denied, that in many comparatively unimportant matters there is proof that the tendency towards High Church views and practice is on the increase. The restoration and the entire rebuilding of so many churches has been very extensive; in all cases, the building has taken an internal character, more or less adapted for the performance of the services in a way more consistent with modern ideas than the old-fashioned mode of proceeding. The low open seats, the neatly-constructed reading-desk, the detached less-obtrusive pulpit, the lectern, the attention paid to the arrangements of the chancel, the provision for the organ or harmonium, with every convenience for substituting the service of a well-taught choir for that of the old instrumental village band and its very homely style of singing, have all led to a more decided tone of Church service; mediævalism betrays itself in the apparatus for lighting the building, and painted glass after ancient model is welcomed, as sustaining the tone due to the scene of a worship with so just a title to the character of antiquity.

In some parishes, we might say in very many, the incumbent leaning to High Church views preaches to his flock in accordance with them, has his school children and a few adults carefully trained to sing and chant well, occasionally clothes his singing boys in surplices, has service on all the saints' days, with very frequent, if not weekly communion; he may be strongly opposed to Dissent, and now and then may have a quarrel with his parishioners about burying a child which has only been baptized at "meeting." It is, however, very rare to find those who hold the most extreme views breaking out into any stronger practice; it must be admitted that, although the library table has the well-known periodical and other literature of the party, zinc-painted texts of the well-known illuminated character adorning the library walls, the rector is slow to push the views of his school on a community in general so small in number, and so connected with each other that to offend a few is to risk offence to all.

It is but natural that the known opinions of the bishop of a diocese should have considerable effect upon those of his clergy. He has a good deal of patronage, and a certain amount of small dignity at his disposal, such as that of the archidiaconal office, prebendal stalls, the appointment to rural deaneries. We do not say that country incumbents would barter their opinions for office, or for income; but, being only men after all, very often men with large families, having the same love of authority that most men have, where the bias of the individual is not very strong, or being so, he knows he cannot yield to it in his parish work, there are no grounds for reprehension if he prefers to moderate his zeal, yield a little of his opinions, and thus be in harmony with his bishop, a thing always agreeable, if not always profitable. It is due to the bishops to say that, even where their views are extreme, they yet do sometimes promote and otherwise befriend incumbents, of good active character, who may yet be of another school.

Admitting that High Church views and some High Church practices are gaining ground in the rural districts, it cannot be denied that the opposite school are still very strong; here, again, the nature of the field powerfully influences the full development of its characteristics. Village pulpits are narrow spheres for eloquent declamation, the congregation is simply local, of village earth very earthy, it affords little pabulum for the oratory that is strongest, when fed by the excitement of its power to attract. There is more inducement to be locally useful than to gain a wide reputation for pulpit efficiency. The Church differs from the proprietary chapel; its seats are filled of right, and there are no other church seats to choose; they are not rented by those whom the preacher has brought from afar, but by those the rector is sworn to feed on the spot. The Evangelical preaches his doctrine faithfully, and with no less zeal, because he has no inducement to do otherwise than preach it soberly. We do not say he likes or willingly favours

Dissent, but yet he so far condones it that he is slow to give it offence. He sees many Dissenters at his afternoon service, and he is gratified; he would be more so if he did not know they had been to chapel in the morning; he does not, however, tell them it is schism—sin.

It is our belief that in attendance on the dying, in the administration of charity, it is rare to find High or Low Churchman slow to offer every aid, very slow to give any offence to Dissenting members of the parish.

The "meetings" in a diocese are no bad index to the strength and zeal of the several "parties" amongst the clergy. The Church Missionary, Bible Society, Pastoral Aid, City Mission, and Religious Tract Societies are in their annual provincial meetings the field-days of the Low Church; the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge, the Societies for the extension of the Colonial Episcopate, the Additional Curates, and Church Building Societies, those of the High Church. To these meetings the clergy go in great numbers; in the way they are conducted, in the nature of the speeches, a very shallow observer could scarcely fail to be struck with the mode in which each party develops its own bias. At the Low Church meetings it is rare not to hear a good deal of declamation against the spread of Popery and the insidious advance of the party within the Church, held to favour but too much of its doctrine and practice. The platform thus affords some vent for the zeal and eloquence which is numbed beneath the cold shade of the village church roof. If the deputations do deal out their facts with a little pardonable exaggeration, and the speakers are a little too boastful of the success of the efforts to do good made by the society they are advocating, still this bonding, from time to time, of the scattered members of an earnest school, with all its results, in the large sums collected for good purposes, is in itself a thing to look upon with gratitude.

The High Church meetings are great clerical gatherings, the laity who attend them are few in number, but in general are men of high position and great moral worth. The proceedings are of a more formal character; the speakers chiefly Church dignitaries and some of the above laymen; "the resolutions" few and business-like. If the meeting is held in the cathedral town, there will probably be a sermon by a bishop—Home or Colonial—and a celebration of the Holy Communion. The speeches are very often distinguished by great ability; very rarely is there any the least attempt to magnify the work advocated by the mere painting of eloquence, or anything like an attack on the supporters of the other societies, whose efforts are clearly antagonistic. The decorum which prevails at the meeting, and the reticence as the work of the adversary, suppressing public exhibition of its feelings, leaves, however, the assembled representatives of "a party" at full liberty, the meeting over, or antecedent to it, freely to exchange opinions on their own and opponents' position in the diocese. I doubt, however, whether the most extreme of those assembled at the Palace, the Deanery, or at other hospitable tables, are thus in private so bitter in speech against the Low Church Diocesan agitators as these latter are on the platform against themselves. Although no good Churchmen will attend those society meetings to which the Dissenters are as much invited as others, there are very many clergy who do support, and sometimes attend the meetings of societies which have more general support from men whose opinions they do not share.

There are yet a certain proportion of the clergy who can hardly be said to belong to any Church party. Their more zealous brethren call them No Church. A name in itself carries no proof that it is deserved. These men are, in one sense, of no Church party, but very often they are some of the hardest workers within the Church. Detesting polemical strife, suspicious of zeal which is over-demonstrative, not given to a very close analysis of disputed points of doctrine and ritual, they are quite content to do in all decency that which they undertook to do, and this quietly, with no desire to call attention to their own work. They go to the market town to shop, not gossip; if they attend meetings of any kind, they do it from a sense of duty. They seldom attend many in one year, and generally choose those which exclusively devote themselves to Church objects. They are rarely seen, except in extreme discomfort, on the platform; they usually sit some way down the room. Their parishioners esteem them, for they are charitable and easy of access, seldom away from home; as parochially domestic as the parish clerk, they lead many to good, where men of greater activity fail to rule their people to it.

Our sketch would still be incomplete if we did not say a few words about that "party" whose writings of late years have caused so much commotion—the Neological school. We do



not believe that, as a school, its strength is on the increase. Its lay admirers may have multiplied, but we question whether, in leading men of ability, it has of late made many converts. It owes its original force in this country to the progress of discussion, external to the Church, of scientific subjects which bear directly upon certain received religious opinions, and also, in some measure, to the disgust natural to men of high education, deep, earnest thinkers, who, of late years, have shrank from communion with the bigotry which sought to confine all thought on religious subjects within very narrow limits,—a bigotry proving itself, by an equal dogmatism in two parties, utterly opposed to each other in what they severally lay down as the truth all are bound to accept. To call such men infidels, to accuse them of wilfully devoting their learning and ability to lower all religion to a standard where all revelation is to be subservient to human wisdom, is, we think, unjust. Had they been met with more of calm argument and less personal abuse, they would probably have shown less disposition to push their theories to the extent they have done. Literary martyrdom has its own peculiar satisfaction, ever increased in proportion to the bitterness which inflicts it. Just men argue, Is the endeavour of learned men of personal piety to test Scripture by scholastic criticism a greater offence to the Church than the perversion and overriding of it by the twisting its plain meaning and superadding to its narrative the dogmas a party within the Church has adopted from the decrees and traditions of the Church of Rome? If these are not prosecuted by law, are indirectly sanctioned by the bishops, why should the Neologists be viewed with such horror, assailed with legal prosecution? We may regret the doubt thrown on any received point of faith. Is there no cause for sorrow when we see Scripture, if not put aside, made of none or little effect by the dogmatizing of an infallibility which we know has again and again proved itself altogether human in its liability to error?

It arms the infidel with a powerful weapon when he sees the faithful fearful lest Christianity, which has so miraculously won its way, should suffer from reason brought to bear on a critical examination of the contents of its ark. We have no fear of the result of all the labour learned men may bestow on criticizing Holy Writ. In every age there have been such men; it is in the very nature of advancing scholarship to be ever on the alert, to exercise reason to the full on every subject important to the human race. Theology can no more stand still and say, all is done, than science; we must be content to see the perpetual endeavour to reconcile the two; rejoicing, as we are so, that all experience, as we can gather it from past ages and in our own, goes to prove that the great points of our faith have triumphed, still triumph, and in their great work for good show no decrease of power.

We now close our attempt to set forth the Established Church in that point of view which exhibits the chief features of division which exist within her pale. We feel we are open to the accusation of doing this with a strong leaning to her Protestant character. We confess it; it is in that character she claims to be the Church of England; just so far as she departs from it she shows treason to that State under which she holds her title to her property, and the protection given to her in the exercise of her functions. If it is said, the laxity of the latitudinarian, in its degree, is also a betrayal of the loyalty due to the Church as established by law, we do not deny it; we have not shrunk from intimating our opinion that it is. Be it, however, remembered, that this lapse is, at least in the direction of the Reformation, although it may exceed its limits; it is an extension of the freedom for which we then contended; it is not a return to the slavery from which we were rescued.

#### TO CORRESPONDENTS.

Eastbourne—An excellent, but, we fear, impracticable suggestion.

#### FINE ARTS.

##### THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

(THIRD NOTICE.)

THERE are several pictures in the exhibition which show how difficult the modern painter finds it to bring his scene before the mind without travelling out of his proper domain, or transgressing those limits and proprieties of his art, which distinguish it from the other arts of expression. The dramatist paints in words, with all his beauties of language, in the high-sounding rhythm and flow of apt words that give life and movement, symmetry and colour

to his scenes, while his subject is in this ideal form made to touch the emotions and affect the imagination as vividly, perhaps more so, than either an acted drama or a picture. But if this artist in words were to attempt to set down for his characters the attitudes, the lineaments of the face, the tones of voice, and other details which belong to the histrionic study of the drama, and form so much the art of the actor, it would be to rob his work of all its charm.

At the same time an actor would be intolerable whose art was so feeble that he could not represent to us all, and more than all, perhaps, that the author suggested. He, too, must be an inventor. Now, the painter may go to the dramatist and poet for his subjects, but he must not go to the stage for his pictures. At a time when art created gods out of the dull bronze and marble, and reached its highest ideal at least in one direction, the painter was not so liable to the influence of the stage. In the severe form of the ancient drama all facial expression was denied the actor; tragic and comic masks gave the proper look of horror, the stare of astonishment, and the satyric grin, so that there was comparatively nothing of nature to study. But when acting developed into an art, it was natural that painters should take hints from the actor, especially from some of the rare models of the art; but the influence is rather a hazardous one and requires to be jealously watched.

If we look back at the course of painting, it will be observed that the tendency to a dramatic style has been gaining ascendancy more and more; and, as we shall have to point out in some examples in this Exhibition, has reached a point now, beyond which it certainly cannot be pushed. The ancient painters decidedly avoided violent facial expression; and, indeed, to a great extent, excessive action in their figures; the principle of repose was paramount with them. The art of the middle ages encouraged all the exaggerated expression of asceticism and suffering, and sank in proportion. The art of the revival renounced all this in approaching the classic model of the antique; and, while Masaccio, and after him Raphael, restrained action and facial expression within the bounds of grace and symmetry, Michael Angelo carried these points to the extreme. But in none of the old masters do we trace the dramatic feeling which is so prevailing a characteristic of modern painting in English pictures of the last fifty years that aim at composition and style. The most striking example of the dramatic treatment in the Exhibition is Mr. Ward's "Night of Rizzio's Murder" (258). It is true the subject has often been painted in all the extravagance of melodrama; we have been shown the luckless favourite of the Queen falling under twenty swords and daggers; but never, perhaps, with more intense feeling for the dramatic in painting. Rizzio, pale and trembling, in an agony of abject fright, ready to fall on his knees to beg the Queen's protection, is a figure expressive enough, but unpleasant to look upon. The Ruthven, in complete steel, stands like an apparition pointing to Rizzio and to the Queen, as Mr. Froude describes, saying in a voice sepulchral as his features, "Let your man come forth." The Queen has risen in a fury as she feels the meaning of Darnley's treacherous kiss, given as he took his seat by her side, and Darnley seems to be crouching away from the suspicious grasp of Mary Stuart with a villainous and cowardly face. The picture is completed with very effective accessories, in the dark form of Murray's "Loose Sister," the Countess of Argyll seated at the table, strongly contrasted with the other figures, which are lit by the light from the candles and the fire, with several menials seen in attendance, and the ready ruffians of Ruthven behind the half-raised curtain of the Queen's cabinet. Besides the rather crowded composition, which does not suit a picture on this small scale, and the glaring effect of lighting in the picture, which, though not inappropriate according to the story, is not agreeable, it is the extremely forced effort at expression in the attitudes and faces that gives the work so much of "stage-effect." A painter has to remember that if he adopts the dramatic style, which is no doubt a perfectly legitimate one, his work is to be ever before the eye; it is not transient like the acted drama, nor can it be closed like the book, to be opened with fresh delight. So that when beauty and grace of treatment are sacrificed to place some scene before the eye in the most striking moment of action, the picture as a picture loses much of its charm. There can be no question as to the ability displayed in a work of this kind, and few men could have painted it with so much power.

Another picture which partakes largely of the dramatic—though in this case the painter has succeeded in throwing something of repose into his scene—is Mr. Elmore's "On the Brink" (138), where a young woman-gambler, after losing her last shilling at one of the German Kursaals, has rushed out into the moonlight and thrown herself into a seat under the balcony in the garden, and close to the window of the room blazing with lights and crowded with heated players. At this moment of despair a wily suitor leans out of the corner of the window and whispers his proposals, which she hears with a strange shrinking look of wavering between honour and ruin. It is this look which attracts and leads one to speculate as to what she will do; we feel, as the artist intends, that she is "on the brink"—and this gives great interest to the picture. The story is carried out by the party eager after the gold, with the croupier presiding in his suit of superfine black—sleek, stolid, and satisfied as a saviour of society. Where the art lies in the treatment of this highly sensational picture, is in choosing just the moment when this beautiful girl has paused to think, and the face has recovered from the spasm that must have made it hideous an instant before.

Mr. F. R. Pickersgill's picture (76), called "A Royalist Family,



1651—"Unfriendly," is an example of the theatrical rather than the dramatic. The cavalier holding his child in his arms, and looking more ferocious than his action, shows the wife in an attitude of picturesque fright at some danger which is not hinted at in the picture, and, except by the catalogue, would be altogether untold—is a figure equally theatrical in feeling. When this erroneous style is coupled with painting of elaborate weakness the picture sinks to the level of the commonest stage prints.

Mr. C. Lucy furnishes us with another example of the falseness of style which arises from the disposition to be dramatic and sentimental at the same time, in his picture of "Garibaldi at the tomb of Ugo Foscolo in Chiswick Churchyard" (380). The very name of such a picture is enough to make one smile and pass by on the opposite side. And yet Mr. Lucy has painted pictures (some years ago) of considerable promise.

Mr. Solomon's picture (called "Habet!" 431) of the ancient Roman women and ladies supposed to be in the seats of the Coliseum while a gladiatorial combat is going on in the arena, incurs all the faults of the theatrical in style, and in the forced manner in which the artist tells his subject—by the exaggerated heads especially, which are all of the same family and all out of proportion to the bodies, or rather the shoulders—for little more of the figures is seen. The utter want of all artistic beauty also in the picture is fatal to it, and a similar defect is noticeable in the absence of all genuine study from nature. We might contrast this picture fairly, for the sake of illustration, with one of a similar subject—the "Bravo Toro!" of Mr. Burgess, in which the figures shouting in mad excitement, and others quietly enjoying their cigarette or glass of lemonade, are painted from the closest study of the people at this epoch of the savage festa of the circus.

Mr. Pettie's "Drumhead Court-martial" (192) is another picture that comes under ban for its artificial and, to a great extent, theatrical treatment. Mr. Clay's "Charles IX. and the French Court on the morning of the Massacre of St. Bartholomew" (365), a rather large work with many figures, hung too far above the line to be perfectly judged, is evidently conceived very much after the model of the stage, though there are marks of good study in many of the figures.

Mr. Yeames' "Arming the Knight" (367) is a work quite of the common order, and so far disappointing as coming from a young artist of some promise. Very much the same remark applies to the pictures presented this year by some other young painters. Mr. J. Bedford's (620) "Morgan le Fay Stealing the Scabbard of Excalibur from King Arthur," (616) "The Defence of Lathom House, 1644," by Mr. G. D. Leslie, (527) "Queen Elizabeth's Tooth-ache," by Mr. J. Hayllar, and (537) "Beauty and the Beast," by R. T. Stanhope, a picture in which certainly beauty has not much occupied the artist.

Mr. Gale has enlarged the view with great advantage in pictures like "The Woman with the Alabaster box of Ointment" (429), but there is nothing in the expression of the head of that elevated character which could give the picture rank among the works of sacred and religious art. The technical merits, however, are good and sound, allowing for some over-indulgence in tone of a peculiar yellow, intended to represent the Eastern light. We should be inclined, nevertheless, to encourage a painter of this *metier*, rather than one who borrows from the exhausted style of the old painters for the Church, like M. E. Signol, in his large picture (194), "Christ Descenda de la Croix." Another picture by a French painter, M. E. Ribot, "Les Retaineurs" (547), does not in our opinion offer much that is desirable to see followed as a model by our painters. The natural study of the muscular arms and the rough begrimed faces of the two tinkers is a good point, and the painting is firmly touched, with perfect understanding, but the general tone of the picture is absurdly dark and unlike nature. For magnificent, artistic, and technical display, nothing can surpass Mr. Phillip's large picture of "Murillo," in the market-place of Seville; and Mr. Faed's large work, "The Last of the Clan" (150), with Mr. Goodall's "Rising of the Nile," Mr. Hook's sea-side studies, and Mr. Rankley's clever pictures of gipsies, may be placed before anything of their class in art to be met with in the present day. It is certainly not the highest style of painting, the aim being rather at picturesque beauty and character than subject, but to succeed in it was not disdained by men as great as Rubens, Velasquez, and Veronese. Mr. Poole adheres to the two peculiar manners associated with his two successes—the picture of Solomon Eagle bearing fire on his head through the plague-stricken crowds of London, and Glaucus and Ioni, with the blind girl Nydia escaping on the moonlit sea from Pompeii—in his two pictures of "The Last Parting," and "A Suburb of Pompeii during the Eruption of 79 A.D." The first named of these represents a moonlit sea with a Highlander parting from his lassie, the boat waiting to take him to the emigrant ship seen lying off the shore, a prettily painted effect. The other picture is loathsome and painful to look at, with the ghastly blind old man surrounded with the dead and dying, from the suffocating air, thick with smoke and ashes, and the general fiery tone of the picture. This is only another phase of the disposition to over-act the dramatic in painting; we are asked to look with the pleasure that a beautiful picture excites in us, at this elaborate depiction of the horrible, and in this case there is not even the charm of good pictorial composition and colour to entice the eye.

*Erratum.*—In the last notice of the exhibition, speaking of Mr. Millais' pictures, a misprint occurred in the word "lists," which should have been "hits."

## MUSIC.

Mdlle. ILMA DE MURSKA, who made her first appearance at Her Majesty's Theatre, on Thursday week, in "Lucia di Lammermoor," is a singer possessing exceptional powers, and a special charm of manner. Her voice is brilliant in quality and extensive in compass; her execution, if not absolutely faultless, far beyond the vocal accomplishments of average prima donnas; while there is a pervading grace of manner and an unaffected earnestness of expression throughout her performance that would go far to disarm criticism, even if her technical merits were less than they really are. Without rising to the greatest height of tragic dignity, she yet evinced considerable dramatic power in the mad scene, in which her earnest pathos and brilliant vocalization put the seal on a success that had never been doubtful from her first entry. The new French tenor, M. Joulain (of whom we have previously spoken in a notice of the second concert of the New Philharmonic Society) has some declamatory power; but his style is hard, and his pronunciation of Italian far from perfect. On Tuesday, "Fidelio" was given for the first time this season, with Mdlle. Titiens' Leonora—a performance of high merit, more especially in the passages of declamatory force and dramatic energy, in which this lady excels, rather than in the expression of tenderness. The new Jacquino, Signor Stagno, has a light and agreeable tenor voice, and sang his music efficiently. Dr. Gunz was, as last year, the Florestan; Mdlle. Sinico an excellent Marcellina; Mr. Santley the best of all recent Pizarros; and Signor Junca, as Rocco, only wanting a little more weight of voice. With new scenery, and a very marked improvement in the chorus, the present performance of "Fidelio," at Her Majesty's Theatre, is by far the best that has been heard in this country for many years. Cherubini's "Medea" is announced for speedy production, with Mdlle. Titiens in the principal part, and a cast, in other respects also of high promise.

On Thursday week Mdlle. Fioretti re-appeared at the Royal Italian Opera in "Martha;" a new tenor, Signor Brignoli, making his debut on the occasion as Sir Lionel, with fair success. On Saturday Mdlle. Patti appeared for the first time this season in "Il Barbiere," with Signor Ronconi as Figaro.

On Friday week Signor Costa's oratorio "Naaman," produced at the Birmingham Festival in September last, was performed, for the first time in London, by the Sacred Harmonic Society at Exeter Hall, under the conductorship of the composer, but with far less success than attended its provincial reception. In our last year's notice of the work we characterized it as belonging to the modern florid and ornate school rather than to that dignified style which alone is appropriate to such a subject. Brilliant climaxes such as would be fitting enough in an Italian opera, and prettiness which might be acceptable in a drawing-room ballad, are out of place as applied to the expression of sacred and divine sentiments. An epic, and, above all, a sacred epic, must not be written in the free and easy colloquial tone of everyday "how d'ye do" conversation—we do not walk into church with mincing, tripping, simpering gestures as if we were in a ball-room soliciting a partner for the next dance. An oratorio is a work, the composition of which presupposes the possession not merely of the highest musical acquirements, but also of rare genius, and especially of profound and reverential sentiment. Unless these qualities are held in combination, nothing but failure can result from attempts at composition of so high an order. The London public is too well acquainted with the really great productions of this class to be easily dazzled by the glitter and tinsel of theatrical parodies—hence the comparatively cold reception awarded here to a work which was received with enthusiasm at Birmingham.

The following programme of the Fourth Philharmonic Concert was substituted, at the last moment, for that previously advertised, probably at the instance of the Royal Princesses who were present—to whom, possibly, was also owing the inversion of the order of performance of the two vocal pieces:—

## PART I.

Symphony in C major (Jupiter) .....	Mozart.
Aria, "Deh! per questo" (Clemenza di Tito) Madame Joachim .....	Mozart.
Concerto, Violin, Herr Lauterbach .....	Beethoven.
Overture (Euryanthe) .....	Weber.

## PART II.

Symphony in A major (Italian) .....	Mendelssohn.
Aria, "Cue farò (Orfeo), Madame Joachim .....	Gluck.
Overture (Egmont) .....	Beethoven.

Conductor—Professor Sterndale Bennett, Mus. D.

The orchestra has greatly and rapidly improved in the general finish of its performance, although there is still much room for greater contrast of *piano* and *forte*. The chief feature of the concert was the first public appearance of Madame Joachim, the wife of the great violinist. This lady has a rich contralto voice, of powerful tone, yet flexible quality; her style is dignified and expressive, and evinces high artistic culture; and her performance was in every way worthy of the name which she bears. Herr Lauterbach, who earned golden opinions here last season, fully confirmed the impression previously made by his playing on this occasion. His performance of the greatest of all violin concertos was admirable, not only for technical skill, but also for the far higher qualities of nobility of style and pure poetical sentiment. At the next concert, on May 29th, the programme will be as originally announced for



the concert just noticed—including Spohr's second symphony in D minor, Mendelssohn's "Trumpet" overture, and Schumann's pianoforte concerto, performed by Madame Schumann.

Simultaneously with the Philharmonic Concert (on Monday last) the programme of the Monday Popular Concert was devoted exclusively to the works of Schumann, in compliment to Madame Schumann, who was the pianist of the occasion; her solo piece being the variations *en forme d'études* dedicated to Sterndale Bennett. The selection, to our thinking, was not the best calculated to win favour with a large miscellaneous audience for a composer as yet but little known, and who has been subject to an almost general critical injustice. The performance, however, was entirely successful.

#### THE LONDON THEATRES.

A LITTLE piece, by Messrs. W. Brough and Andrew Halliday, called "Up-stairs and Down-stairs; or, the Great Percentages Question," has been produced this week at the Strand Theatre. It strongly resembles "High Life Below Stairs," and, Malapropisms excepted, is written with much humour. The objection to such pieces is, that they tend to set class against class; but the recent exposure of the underhand dealings between West-end tradespeople and servants justifies the tone of the present farce. The chief character is a pompous footman, played a little too intelligently by Mr. Stoyte.

A new "eccentric" English comedian, named Walcot, whose fame and experience have been gained in America, has appeared at the Olympic Theatre this week in Mr. Stirling Coyne's Haymarket comedy of "Everybody's Friend." It is hardly fair to judge of his talent from his performance of one character—Major de Boots; but he appears to us to be an actor of limited humour, with a style alternating between that of Mr. Compton and the late Mr. Harley. His face is funny and expressive, but his pronunciation savours of age. The comedy was fairly acted, but it was not mounted with much taste.

Mr. Arthur Sketchley has returned to the Egyptian Hall, after a short but severe illness, and has re-appeared in his admirable and humorous character sketch of "Mrs. Brown," and in his entertainment called "Paris Pourtrayed."

The Liverpool papers speak very highly of a new and original comedy, by Mr. T. Robertson, called "Society," which was produced at the Prince of Wales's Theatre in Liverpool last week. It will probably find its way to London at an early period.

"Don Caesar de Bazan" has been played at the Lyceum this week, and next week—the last week of the season—Mr. Fechter will appear in "Hamlet." Mr. Boucicault has been in treaty with Mr. Fechter for the theatre for the remainder of the year, and so has Mr. Charles Reade; but both the negotiations have ended without any arrangement being effected. Mr. Alfred Wigan is said to be contemplating a short tenancy of this house.

The second reading of Mr. Locke's Theatres Bill has been again deferred, owing to the pressure of Parliamentary business. The Government admit that the whole of the theatrical laws must be amended, and will consent to the appointment of a committee to consider the whole question. The promoters of the above bill have funds, and are determined to continue the agitation, and the existing theatrical monopoly is not worth two years' purchase.

Drury Lane closes to night (Saturday), and its future prospects appear doubtful at present.

Mr. Walter Montgomery will probably take the Haymarket Theatre for a few weeks in the summer, during the absence of Mr. Buckstone's company in the country, and will produce a new poetical five-act play by a son of Mr. Henry Russell, called "Fra Angelo."

The new comedy-farce of "Uncle Sam," which Mr. Sothorn is preparing at the Haymarket, is not Mr. Tom Taylor's version, nor Mr. Stirling Coyne's, but is written by Mr. John Oxenford.

#### SCIENCE.

IN a most important paper upon the flora of New Caledonia, M. Brongniart, in comparing the results of his own observation with those of Dr. Hooker regarding the Australian flora, concludes that there is a marked resemblance between the flora of New Holland and New Caledonia. The Australian character of the plants examined by him refers principally to the presence of several families or natural tribes which are equally abundant in the two countries. Such are—(1) The *Myrtaceæ*, with capsular fruits, of which there are twelve species common to both countries; (2) the *Proteaceæ*, the greater number of whose species are found both in New Caledonia and Australia; (3) the *Epacrideæ*, of which about fourteen species are common. The whole of the plants in the collection received by M. Brongniart were 1,700, ranged as follows:—

Dicotyledons .....	1,100	Phanerogams,
Monocotyledons .....	200	1,300
Acrogens .....	150	Cryptogams,
Amphigens .....	250	400

A writer in the *Veterinarian*, who signs herself "Humanitas," has given some suggestions regarding the feeding of milch cows, with a view to procure milk of a better quality than that supplied

at present. These suggestions, though in principle by no means new, are useful, and if capable of being carried out may effect some service. In cows' milk, says the writer, the sugar is deficient, thus accounting for its inferiority to human milk as a producer of heat; the water is also less than in human milk; the butter and caseine are more, and the salts are also in excess. Cows' milk is not unfrequently acid, (!) especially when the animal has been stalled, while human milk is decidedly alkaline. "Bearing all these differences in mind, it appears to me that every condition indicated might be fulfilled, and that we should obtain a very good balance in the relative proportion of these essential elements in the milk, if we supplied the cow with the kind of food containing the sugar, the alkali, and the carbon." The suggestion is generally useful, but is one which has often before been made and acted on with tolerable advantage. There are some difficulties in the way, however, and not the least of these is the fact that the food must be such as is suited to help the proper nutrition of the animal, as well as to supply the elements for the milk. We were not aware that the milk of the cow was ever acid till on exposure to the air it had undergone change, and we receive the writer's statement on this subject with considerable doubt. There is, too, a fact which she has omitted to mention, viz., that the proportion of potash in cows' milk is much smaller than in the secretion of woman.

It would appear that the researches of M. Caron upon the constitution of steel, which we have so often had to call attention to in these pages, have been favourably considered by the Belgian Academy of Sciences. This scientific body has awarded a gold medal to M. Caron for his investigations. M. Stas, who was one of the committee appointed to inquire into the merits of M. Caron's essay, has made the following comments, in which he clearly coincides with M. Caron's views: Steel is essentially composed of iron and carbon, and owes its qualities or defects to two different causes—the state of the carbon in the metal, or the nature of the foreign bodies with which it is united. Whenever steel is good its carbon can, under the influence of tempering, combine with the iron and give a hard brittle metal, which further tempering renders supple and elastic. When steel becomes bad after undergoing several heatings, it is due to its carbon having been burnt or separated from the iron, and tempering will not regenerate the combination. This separation is mainly due to the influence of the foreign bodies, more especially silicium. These bodies also give to the metal defects varying with their nature and the impurities they contain. M. Stas concludes by remarking that M. Caron's essay "is undoubtedly the *résumé* of long and glorious labours, put forth with a simplicity which greatly enhances their merits."

SCIENTIFIC MEETINGS.—Monday:—Royal Geographical Society, Anniversary Meeting, at 1 p.m.—Annual address, "On the Progress of Geography." By the President, Sir R. I. Murchison, K.C.B. The anniversary dinner will take place at Willis's Rooms, at 6½ p.m. Sir R. I. Murchison in the chair.—Tuesday:—Institution of Civil Engineers, at 8 p.m.—1. Discussion upon Mr. Fletcher's paper, "On the Maintenance of Railway Rolling Stock."—2. "The Telegraph to India, and its extension to Australia and China." By Sir Charles T. Bright, M. Inst. C.E.

#### MONEY AND COMMERCE.

CONSOLS are now quoted 90½ to ½, with div., for money, and 89½ to ½, ex div., for the account (June 8). The official business report is as follows:—Three per Cent. Consols, for money, 90½; ditto, for account, 89½; Three per Cents. Reduced, 88½; New Three per Cents., 88½; Annuities, 1885, 14 1-16; India Five per Cent. Stock, 106½; Five and a Half per Cent. "enfaced" rupee paper, 108; and Exchequer Bills, 3s. to 6s. prem.

In Colonial Government Securities Canada 6 per Cents. (Jan. and July, 1877-84) fetched 94½; Mauritius 6 per Cents. (1862, May and Nov.), 106 ex div.; New Brunswick 6 per Cents., 93; New South Wales 5 per Cents. (1888-92), 92½; Queensland 6 per Cents., 103½.

The shares of the financial companies showed renewed dullness. Crédit Foncier and Mobilier declined 2s. 6d. The closing quotations are annexed, viz.:—International Financial, ¾ to 1½ prem.; General Credit, 1½ to 1¾ prem.; London Financial, 6½ to 7½ prem.; Imperial Mercantile Credit, ¾ to 1½ prem.; Crédit Foncier and Mobilier (both old and new shares), 3½ to ½ prem., ex div.

The subjoined report on the bullion market is from the circular of Messrs. Sharps and Wilkins:—No alteration of importance in the state of the bullion market has taken place during the past fortnight. Bar silver has slightly declined in value, owing to a trifling rise in the continental exchanges, while Mexican dollars remain as last quoted, 4s. 11½d. per oz. At present there is no appearance of any revival in the demand for either India or China. The arrivals of gold have been chiefly sold to the Bank of England, the inquiry for export being exceedingly limited.

PERUVIAN RAILWAYS COMPANY (LIMITED).—The prospectus of the above company has been issued, with a total capital of £3,340,000, one half of which will be issued in shares of £25 each. The Peruvian Government have conceded a guarantee of £7 per cent. per annum on the whole capital. This new company is introduced by the National Bank, and has a respectable direction. The engineers are Mr. G. P. Bidder and Mr. J. M. Heppel.

We have been requested to state that the Royal Insurance Company have moved into their new premises in Lombard-street. The annual revenue of this company, we see, is now £600,000, and its reserve fund amounts to over one million.



## REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

## EXODUS OF THE WESTERN NATIONS.\*

If Lord Bury's book is not a complete success, it is owing to the enormous nature of the undertaking, not to any lack of ability, or want of labour, on the part of the writer. His task has been one after his own heart, and there is evidence of much thought and hard work in its performance. But to grasp, in all its details, such a widely extended subject, to give due weight to each branch, and at the same time to make out a consistent whole, would require the highest historical genius. The history of the colonies of all the western nations of Europe, their causes and origin in the remote past, their gradual establishment, the varied phases of their progress, their advancement or decline, their independence, or, in the case of those still dependent on the mother-country, the existing relations between parent and child—such are the main divisions of Lord Bury's subject. He has not, however, contented himself with these. He maintains that "to understand the emigrant we must study the mother-land, watch it as it emerges from barbarism, note its conduct amidst the rude shocks of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries; we must observe the growth of the haughty and intolerant spirit of Spain, the persevering independence of the fishermen and burghers of Holland, the island pride and pluck of the English, the religious wars of the French, their obstinate adherence to feudalism, and the national light heart that breaks out undepressed." In addition, a running comparison is kept up through the book between the various systems of colonization whose history is related. With such a subject, and only two volumes for its treatment, we need hardly say that Lord Bury has not been equally successful in all the branches of his undertaking. But, before we proceed to point out in what we think he has failed, we must say that, notwithstanding its imperfections, the book is one of rare merit, full of interest, and, owing to the author's position, possessing peculiar value at the present time.

In pursuance of his theory that a knowledge of European is necessary to the understanding of colonial history, Lord Bury has devoted a considerable portion of his first volume to rapid sketches of the progress of such of the western nations as we have chiefly to deal with. These summaries do not come together in a compact form, but are interwoven with the main subject of the book in a somewhat confusing manner. We are told that "the fictitious boundary-line of the Atlantic must be disregarded, and the old and new world presented in the same picture;" but we have found the picture somewhat confusing, and are inclined to think that it would have been better had the so-called fictitious boundary-line been respected, and the European history related in separate chapters. The European portions of the book are rather dry and uninteresting. Brief sketches of important periods of history are, as a rule, either confusing, from the overcrowding of facts, or inaccurate, from excessive generalization. There is certainly a golden mean, which in rare instances has been attained; as, for example, in Hallam's "History of the Middle Ages," and in the brilliant summary with which Lord Macaulay commences his great history; but we cannot say that Lord Bury has achieved this rare success. The question, moreover, might be raised, whether more European history is not given than is strictly necessary; whether too much is not said about the Guises, the Holy League, and the Partition treaty. No doubt such matter is not wholly irrelevant; but, if every effect must be traced to its cause, however remote, and every consequent to its antecedent, however distant, we should have to begin our histories with the Deluge and the Tower of Babel. At any rate, a history of colonization in two volumes cannot proceed on such a plan.

We are inclined to quarrel, also, with Lord Bury's title-page. There never has been an *Exodus* of the Western Nations. There have only been periodical overflows. And even if we pass over the inaccurate use of the word "exodus," and take it in the sense of "overflow," we maintain that Lord Bury has not given us a history of the "Exodus of the Western Nations." A history that makes no mention of Indian, African, or Australian colonies, is no history of the exodus of the Western nations: it is merely a section of such a history. We believe this imperfection must be explained by facts which the author himself mentions. We are told in the preface that Lord Bury held, under two successive governors of Canada—Lord Elgin and Sir Edmund Head—the post of Civil Secretary and Superintendent-General of Indian affairs. This position led him to consider the relations of Canada and the mother country, and at length this book was produced, in order, as he himself says, "to give an account of the successive changes which have taken place in the spirit of our policy, and, by comparing the system thus built up with the course pursued by other nations, to appreciate at their just value maxims which now guide the English Colonial Office."

The book, therefore, has two aspects—an historical aspect and a political aspect; and we think the history is made subservient to the politics, although the title would hardly lead the reader to suppose so. The Canadian question required illustration, which Lord Bury has given by a history of American colonization, and he has not noticed colonization in other quarters of the world because it would not have served his purpose. Had the historical part of his subject been uppermost in his mind, such neglect would have been inexplicable; but the reason is obvious if we take his purpose to have been mainly political. Considered, then,

as a political essay from one who has had peculiar opportunities of examining the question of England's relation to her colonies, the book is an exceedingly able production, and especially valuable at the present time, when Canadian affairs are such a *resata questio*. Considered as an historical work, it is also worthy of high praise, and the colonial history is very good; but we do not think the author has fully justified his ambitious title, nor fulfilled all its promise.

We will now desist from the ungracious task of criticism, and, first confining ourselves to the colonial history, attempt to give some idea of the manner in which Lord Bury handles his subject.

England, France, Spain, Portugal, Holland, and Sweden, are the countries whose colonies are treated of. The Spaniards were the first to settle in America, and their history includes the history of Western discovery. A restless spirit of activity characterized the fifteenth century. Mediaeval darkness had been dissipated by the invention of printing; the seeds of the Reformation were sown in Europe; feudalism was being overthrown by the rising power of towns and increasing commerce. In such a time, the European mind was unusually active. Portuguese enterprise gave the start to a spirit of maritime discovery, and, once started, advancing civilization would not let it rest. This spirit found expression in the expeditions of Columbus. Five times he sailed westward, each time returning with fresh intelligence of new and fertile climes. Isabella of Castile, not Ferdinand, as Lord Bury says, had the honour of being convinced by Columbus of the possibility of land to the west, and she and Ferdinand furnished the means for these expeditions; but the glory of the actual discovery of the continent of America was snatched from his hands by John Cabot, who, in 1497, equipped by Henry VII. of England, reached the mainland of America a year before Columbus. "The accursed thirst for gold" was aroused by the accounts of Columbus and his associates. Unprincipled and greedy adventurers crowded to the West, and unparalleled atrocities were committed under the pretence of religious zeal. Peru, Mexico, Florida, soon passed into the hands of the Spaniards, and, with the exception of the Brazils, their sway extended from Louisiana to the Straits of Magellan. Their colonial system was in harmony with the despotic polity at home. The authority of the mother country was absolute. Trade monopolies were established, confining all commerce to certain ports. In fact, "a perfect monument of systematic tyranny" was raised. This quasi-paternal rule, consisting of Spanish vice-royalties and government monopolies, kept the colonies in a permanent state of pupillage, and, although the ravages of war, plague, dearth, and famine, and the expulsion of the Jews and Moors, the only industrial classes, had reduced the power of Spain to a very low ebb, the system was maintained until the Mexican revolution of 1810, which was speedily followed by the final severance of the Spanish colonies of South and Central America from the mother country.

Portugal, Holland, and Sweden do not meet with much attention. The occupation of the Brazils by the first, of New Jersey by the second, and of a part of Delaware by the third, are but briefly described. At one time, Portugal possessed a greater extent of territory than any other country has held before or since, and we think she merits a greater attention than Lord Bury has bestowed upon her. A history of colonization ought certainly to have allowed more space to her colonies, though they may be treated fully enough for a political essay on the colonial system of England.

Greater regard is paid to the history of French colonization, which is one of the best portions of the book. The attempt and failure of Cartier to establish himself in Canada in the years 1534-42, and the settlement of De Monts by Henry IV. in Acadia, are well told, and the attention of the reader is drawn to the fact that, as long as paternal care was exercised over the colony, it did not seem to prosper, whilst its greatest success was during a period of comparative neglect. In the time of Louis XIV., who, for a period, took great interest in his American colonies, shiploads of emigrants were sent out, and batches of women were persuaded to go forth and be married. Lord Bury observes upon this latter fact, "How deeply rooted was the aristocratic temper of France when the Government could descend to provide even in the wilds of Canada against the chance of a misalliance!" Does he seriously think that young women of noble family consented to form part of these curious cargoes? It seems hardly possible. In the first page of the same volume, he thus describes these colonists, whose aristocratic blood was so tenderly considered:—

"The first Frenchmen who established themselves in Acadia were fishermen who wintered on the coast and pursued their trade in the summer; they were joined by traders, soldiers, artisans, and labourers, who from time to time arrived in the train of leaders to whom the fortunes of the colony were entrusted."

Were these enterprising young women sent out, then, to save fishermen, traders, soldiers, artisans, and labourers, from the dangers of misalliance, or were they not rather sent out because there was an utter dearth of women in the colony? Perhaps if Lord Bury were to reconsider the question, he would confess to an error of hasty generalization.

The French colonies were finally absorbed by the English; but before we leave them we cannot resist quoting a passage which thoroughly explains the cause of their failure:—

"The common belief that the French are unfitted for colonization appears to be without foundation. Her failures must be attributed rather to her policy than to any defect in the character of her people."

\* Exodus of the Western Nations. By Viscount Bury, M.P. Two vols. London: Bentley.



The habit of centralizing authority and excluding the people from all participation in power must of necessity have been disastrous, but great as these evils were in France, they were still greater in the colonies. There was in France a shadow of popular representation: in the colonies, even the *communes* did not exist. Of all societies colonies most require to be let alone; Government interference checks their self-reliance and consequently their prosperity; the habit of settling their own affairs produces men active and full of resource in times of emergency. The French administration was wrong from beginning to end; there was no continuous stream of emigration to keep up the tie between France and the colonies, no self-government to foster habits of independence."

The earliest English adventurers in the West were not a credit to their country. With them, as with the Spaniards, religion served as a cloak to rapine and cruelty. "Zeal for the Church on the one side, zeal for the Reformation on the other, sanctioned every excess. Behind the decent veil of religion, each fought for and worshipped with un pitying cruelty their common idol, gold." But it was not of such stuff that the English colonies were formed. Both Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in 1578, and Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1584, failed to make a permanent settlement, and no hold was gained on the American continent by the English till the establishment of the Puritan colony of New Plymouth, in 1607, by men who were actuated by a desire for peace in the practice of their religion, not by greed of gold. They were speedily followed by others, who occupied Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Hampshire, and Maryland. A fact much to the credit of these colonists, and which Lord Bury forgets to mention, was that they bought the land they occupied from the natives. The supply of population from England was not equal in character to the original settlers. Convicts and thieves, spendthrifts and *roués*, were the staple of supply; but, as labour was dear, the climate healthy, and the openings for restless spirits many and various, the fresh vigour of the new country absorbed this tainted blood without much injury, and purified it in the absorption. We will not trouble our readers with a sketch of the history of these colonies, which is probably already familiar to them; but we can recommend Lord Bury's account as an admirable outline of it. Particularly well done is the narrative of colonial resistance to home interference. Unlike the colonies of France and Spain, ours had been self-developed, and it was too late to attempt to fetter them with petty restrictions. The attempt led to rebellion, which ended in independence. With the encounter at Lexington, which was the opening of the war, Lord Bury concludes his account of those colonies which now form the United States, not considering the War of Independence itself to be germane to his subject.

We have thus given a scanty outline of the various systems of colonization (saving the progress of Canada since the War of Independence), whose history Lord Bury relates. It is impossible, in our limited space, to do him full justice, but we trust we have succeeded in conveying to our readers some idea of the excellence of his book. The style is clearness itself: always vigorous, it is sometimes eloquent, and, whilst dealing with colonial matters, no amount of detail seems to have confused the author. Perhaps, if he has a fault, he inclines to that error which Mr. Froude has made fashionable, namely, the giving too much space to the personal and picturesque side of history. His accounts of John Smith, the Virginian hero, and of Law and his Mississippi scheme, are, we think, instances of this. But it is a fault which makes the book more interesting, and one we can easily pardon.

We have hardly noticed the parallels which are drawn from time to time between the various colonial systems, and which are as valuable as the narrative itself; and we must now confine ourselves to the briefest summary of them. The Spanish colonies were never left to themselves; the French received constant attention from home; similarly were the Portuguese treated; whilst the English, alone and unaided, with difficulty struggled into existence, and suffered little interference from the mother country until they had attained a state of comparative prosperity. Success has proved the last to be the only efficient plan. Colonies must manage their internal affairs for themselves.

We purpose to return to Lord Bury's very interesting volumes next week, in order to treat fully that part which we think the most important—"the testing of the present colonial policy by the light of past experience." The matured opinion of one whose knowledge and ability are so well known, deserves more attention than a hasty judgment expressed at the fag-end of an article.

#### BRIGAND LIFE IN ITALY.\*

THE history of our age has no more ghastly and repulsive chapter than that which is devoted to the record of brigandage in Naples. In reading the news which during the last few years has come to us from Southern Italy, we have frequently seemed to be plunged into the blackest periods of the middle ages, when humanity was regarded as a weakness, and fidelity to Church and king was held to excuse any atrocity that might be committed in their names. Englishmen were slow to believe that in these days women and children could be murdered or tortured with the most horrible elaborations of cruelty, and that men could be found in a civilized State who were literally cannibals and drinkers of human blood. Yet there can be no doubt as to the truth of the worst

allegations against the Bourbonist brigands who, after the fall of Gaeta early in 1861, were engaged in a vain struggle against the national will and the rule of Victor Emmanuel. The so-called "troops" of Francis II., raised and organized at Rome, and sent forth on their infamous missions with the full knowledge and connivance of the Papal Government, have not scrupled to commit crimes which place them beyond the common pale of humanity. Brigandage has, unhappily, been a feature in the annals of Naples for many ages. We find it existing even during the old Roman times; and whenever the Government has been weak, or a state of revolution has existed—no uncommon circumstance in a country which has repeatedly changed its masters, and been conquered by foreign races again and again—this ancient disease has reappeared with fresh vigour, and flourished securely among the thick forests and mountain-passes of that savage land. In the early years of the present century, when a French dynasty was established at the capital, the deeds of Fra Diavolo and of other bandit chiefs struck terror far and near; and in our own days we have seen their worst crimes equalled, if not surpassed. An authentic record of the events of the last four years in connection with the reactionary efforts of Francis II. was a work much to be desired by all students of contemporary history. The two volumes on Neapolitan brigandage by Mr. Hilton, which we noticed in the LONDON REVIEW of November 12th, 1864, were very interesting as far as they went; but the author was not in a position to obtain access to the more important documents illustrative of his subject, and his book was consequently for the most part a reproduction of facts already published in other places. Count Maffei's work is obviously of a more authentic character. The preface is dated from the Italian Embassy, and the volumes show many evidences of their compiler having had the advantage of special information not hitherto made public. The two first chapters contain an account of brigandage as it existed in previous times; but the author soon abandons this comparatively remote ground for that which more immediately concerns us. He shows that, after the flight of the young King from Naples in the autumn of 1860, brigandage received a considerable accession of strength owing to the generous but mistaken policy of Garibaldi. The Bourbon Government having confined political offenders and actual felons in the same prisons, the Liberator, on being invested with dictatorial power, threw open the goals in a fit of indiscriminating ardour, and set free all their inmates under a general impulse of good will. Some of the worst criminals offered their services to Garibaldi, and were accepted, doubtless in ignorance of their real character; but by the more regular Government of Victor Emmanuel, which succeeded the Dictatorship, these men were discouraged, and some of them recommitted to prison. The others, in revenge, formed themselves into bands for purposes of plunder, having at first no political object whatever; but when, subsequently, the defeated army of Francis II. was disbanded, many of the soldiers coalesced with these scattered troops of banditti, and some formidable hordes of desperadoes were soon at the bidding of the Legitimist committee sitting at Rome, where they matured their plans under the immediate directions of the ex-monarch, and were tacitly countenanced by the Pope. It was then that brigandage became political, and that the cause of the Bourbonists and of the Papacy was disgraced by crimes the very relation of which, if it were not necessary to the defeat of such infernal machinations, would be in itself a crime. That the brigand bands were not mere insurgents, acting honourably, though in a bad cause, but that they really committed atrocities of the most frightful description, there is abundant evidence to prove. In the early part of 1863, the Italian Government appointed a Parliamentary Commission with a view to inquiring into the whole subject. Count Maffei gives a summary of the memorial drawn up by Commendatore Massari, the reporter of the commission, combining with the statements thus derived various confirmatory facts extracted from other official documents; and from these relations it is but too manifest that the brigands behaved like savages, and that, notwithstanding their numerous iniquities, they received the full support of Pio Nono and his advisers. "Not only," says Count Maffei, stating in general terms the result of the information before him, "were they allowed to enrol and drill recruits, but the bands had full permission to overrun the Roman territory without molestation, seeking shelter from the just punishment which the Italian troops would certainly have inflicted on them if they could have passed the frontiers. Full power, moreover, was given to the chiefs of the expeditions to obtain provisions in the country, and gendarmes were given to them as guides." In proof of these assertions, Count Maffei prints two letters written to the brigand chief, Chiavone, by a brigadier of the Pontifical Gendarmes—letters duly authenticated by the stamp of the body to which the writer belonged. Whenever the brigands captured any Italian soldiers—an event occasionally, though but rarely, happening—they at once crossed the frontier, and delivered their prisoners to the Pontifical authorities, who took charge of them; and the worst criminals among these supporters of a hopeless cause knew that they would obtain protection under the Pope's flag, unless, as sometimes has happened, the French insisted on their being given up. "When the brigand Cucitto," writes Count Maffei, "barbarously murdered the syndic of Mola di Gaeta, he took refuge in the Papal territory. At Rome, he boasted in public of the murder he had committed, and showed the watch he had taken from his victim. The homicide stayed some time in Terracina, unnoticed by the Papal police, and for several months

\* Brigand Life in Italy. A History of Bourbonist Reaction. Edited, from Original and Authentic Documents, by Count Maffei. Two vols. London: Hurst & Blackett.



went about the country, until, in consequence of the extradition requested by the commander of the Italian troops in Gaëta, he was taken by the French, and consigned to our authority."

Touching the very delicate question as to the amount of blame attaching to France for continuing its protection to a Power openly in league with assassins, Count Maffei speaks with the reserve of one who is aware of the gratitude due from his country to the ally of 1859, since, from whatever motives he acted, and however imperfectly he may have carried out the programme with which he commenced, it is certain that Louis Napoleon helped in a very important degree towards the establishment of Italian independence. Our author cannot deny that brigandage has indirectly received great moral and material support from the presence of the French in Rome; but he says that the soldiers of the Emperor have always treated those of Victor Emmanuel as brothers-in-arms, and, whenever they encountered the brigands, have invariably dispersed them, or made them prisoners.

"It is equally true that the French have to do with a Government which, in return for their protection, seeks every means of compromising them. In the opinion of the French, the complicity of the Pontifical Government with brigandage has been much exaggerated. Brigandage, they say, might be effectually combated by a local police, whose duty it would be to keep a constant watch on the proceedings of the brigands; but whenever the troops are set in movement against them, they are straightway informed by the ever-active Pontifical police. There have even been sometimes French commanders who have taken such an exaggerated view of their military duty as to be alarmed by the appearance in the waters of Terracina of an Italian ship on cruise, when her only object was to watch any possible attempt to disembark brigands on the shores of Gaëta. The operations of the Italian troops must have been very much obstructed by these causes. The brigands, restrained by no laws of honour, pass the frontier, easily eluding the vigilance of the French; whereas our soldiers, faithful to their instructions, stop as soon as they arrive at the frontier, leaving to the brigands complete liberty of offence, while the Italian soldiers are deprived of the opportunity of defence."

The papers in cipher found on the person of the Princess Barberini Sciarra when she was arrested in 1862, still further show the complicity of the Papal authorities; and in the examination of the brigand chief, Pasquale Forgione, in 1863, the following statements were made:—

"Brigand.—We were fighting for the faith, and we were blessed by the Pope, and if I had not lost a paper which came from Rome you should be convinced that we were fighting for the faith.

"Judge.—What kind of paper was it?

"Brigand.—It was a printed paper, that came from Rome.

"Judge.—But what were the contents of the paper?

"Brigand.—It said that whoever fights for the holy cause of the Pope and of Francis II., does not commit sin.

"Judge.—Do you recollect anything else in the paper?

"Brigand.—It said that the real brigands are the Piedmontese, who have taken away from Francis II. his kingdom; that they were excommunicated, and that we are blessed by the Pope.

"Judge.—In whose name was the paper written, and what signatures were attached to it?

"Brigand.—The paper was a commission in the name of Francis II., and was signed by a general, who had another title, which I don't recollect, any more than his name."

General Pallavicini, in a letter to Count Maffei, now published for the first time, and giving a very interesting report of his operations in the disturbed districts, mentions a fact which he pertinently describes as indicating a state of things strangely at variance with European civilization in the nineteenth century. He states that, during the worst times of the brigandish reaction, "villages and large provincial towns surrounded themselves with breastworks and loopholes, while isolated houses were fortified with regular parapets." The evil, however, has now greatly decreased, and is, indeed, almost extinct. The Parliamentary Commission to which we have already alluded made various recommendations for the pacification of the country—such as the formation of roads, the cutting down or thinning of forests, the extension of railways, the encouragement of public works, the spread of education, the organization of a police force, the calling out of the National Guard, the improved administration of justice, and the granting to prefects and others of certain exceptional powers rendered necessary by the anarchical state of the Southern provinces. Some of these recommendations have been carried out; others are in progress of realization; and the good effect of a policy at once temperate and vigorous is already seen in the rapid diminution of brigandage and terrorism. With a better Government than they have had for ages, much may be expected from the Neapolitans. Together with some vices, the fruits of prolonged despotism, ignorance, and superstition, they have many excellent qualities; and General Pallavicini relates that the very brigands who inflicted merciless tortures on their enemies had so high a sense of honour among themselves that, when captured, they were never known to save themselves from death by denouncing their comrades or those who had sheltered them, and that they rarely abandoned their wounded, often suffering themselves to be taken prisoners rather than forsake the injured, though, by a strange contradiction of feeling, they would kill them if they perceived that they were incurable.

Brigandage, however, will not be finally extirpated until Rome is in the possession of the National Government. On this subject Count Maffei speaks very frankly, and his words are not without weight:—

"The Government of Victor Emmanuel, looking forward with confidence to the destinies of the country, will faithfully abide by its engagement. As sincere Catholics, its members will not hesitate to pay homage to the spiritual supremacy of the Pope, being desirous that there should be a reconciliation between the Venerable Head of the Church and the regenerated Italian kingdom. If the Holy See, however, persists in its fatal obstinacy, it then remains to be seen whether, in this nineteenth century, a cause associated with the bigotry and superstition of the past is to triumph over the civilization and intelligence of a new era."

The volumes which we now close must be read by all who would understand the present position of Southern Italy. They are written in a lively and unpretending style, and combine the value of history with the entertainment of a romance.

#### STUDIES IN BIOGRAPHY.\*

UNDER this affected title, Mr. Trotter republishes eight articles formerly contributed by him to "high class serials." From his use of a new-fangled name, as well as from the tone of his preface, we gather that he wishes to claim for his "literary waifs" a character distinct from, and higher than, that of mere ordinary essays and reviews. It is clear, indeed, from his self-appreciative preface, that he entertains a very high opinion of their merits, and awaits with confidence the gratitude of the reading public for the boon which he is conferring upon them. Authors have, it is true, been charged before now with vanity for saying of their works much less than this:—"My reasons for disinterring these literary waifs from the tomb, where *many a good thing* lies forgotten or hard of access, may be summed up in one single statement: feeling a father's pride in my own offspring, I own to a natural wish that others should have the chance of admiring them—if they can." But perhaps we ought not to indulge in any sneers on this score, after the earnest effort which Mr. Trotter assures us that he has made "to combine those two forms of criticism which a recent writer has dubbed the sympathetic and the judicial." He subsequently explains that by this imposing phraseology he simply means that he has tried to do justice to the men about whom he has written. That is, we trust, not an unusual attempt on the part of writers who contribute to periodicals; nor, in fact, have we been able to discover any great difference between the essays before us and a score of biographical sketches which appear in each batch of "monthlies." These "Studies" are simply good average magazine or review articles, by no means wanting in merit, but by no means free from defects. So far, too, as we can gather from internal evidence, we should say that they were produced under the circumstances and in the way in which such things are usually turned out. They are obviously founded on books which were put into the writer's hands for review; and we do not see any reason to think that he knew more of his subject than those books told him. If he has "studied" the lives, for instance, of Mahomet, Becket, or Pitt, elsewhere than in the works of Muir, Canon Robertson, and Earl Stanhope, we can discover no traces of independent research. In dealing with Mr. Hepworth Dixon's "Life of Lord Bacon," he has apparently resorted to Lord Campbell's life and Lord Macaulay's essay, for the facts supplied by the one, and the arguments furnished by the other. But many a reviewer has done that without calling the product a "study," and summoning the world to admire it as something out of the ordinary way.

If Mr. Trotter had not invited us to try the pretensions of his work by a high standard, we should have said nothing about the style in which it is written. For this is passable enough, as periodical writing goes; and it would be unfair to criticize severely articles hastily written under the pressure to which contributors to periodical publications are habitually subject. But in papers so carefully and elaborately prepared as we are given to understand these have been, we cannot pass over as mere slips of the pen the numerous passages of mere fine writing by which they are disfigured. As specimens of the sort of composition to which we refer, we may take the following grandiloquent bit of criticism on Mr. Hepworth Dixon's "Life of Lord Bacon":—"His attempt to shape out the perfect star so long veiled from our grosser eyes can only be likened to muddy wine that looks clear as it stands in coloured glasses, or to a paltry landscape disguised by the dim uncertain moonlight with a beauty not its own." Or, again, speaking of Mahomet:—"The warmth of his own temper conspired with the growing worldliness of his philosophy to launch him on a sea of blood and havoc, whose furthestmost billows were afterwards to force their way into the very heart of Christian Europe." We are not surprised when we meet with writing of this kind in the leading columns of one or two of the penny papers; but we hardly expect to meet with it in a "Biographical Study."

Taking them, however, at our own valuation, rather than at the author's, we are able to speak favourably of these essays. As sketches of the lives and characters of the half-dozen more or less eminent men to whom they are devoted, they will be read with interest by those who do not care, or have not the time, to peruse more elaborate biographies. They are written with spirit; they exhibit considerable tact in picking out the salient points of character and the leading events in a career; and, with the exception, perhaps, of the essay on Pitt, they are not materially open to the charge of one-sidedness. The slightest and least satisfactory

\* Studies in Biography. By Lionel James Trotter. London: Moxon & Co.



these sketches is that of "Mahomet." That of "Thomas Becket," though somewhat too rhetorical for our taste, contains upon the whole a fair and just estimate of the prelate's character. In "Frederic II. of Germany," we have an account of one of the greatest of mediæval monarchs; and in "Savonarola" a portrait of one of the most remarkable of the men who attempted, in the period immediately preceding the Reformation, to stay the degeneracy of the Roman Catholic Church while holding fast to its doctrines. "Bacon and his new Apologist" is substantially a reply to Mr. Hepworth Dixon's sophistical plea for the author of the "De Augmentio," and the "Novum Organum;" and, although we cannot admit that it contains anything new, or shows any marks of original research, we do not deny that it states clearly and forcibly the leading points of the case against Elizabeth's Attorney-General and James's Lord Chancellor. We give the concluding paragraph:—

"In him the intellect of a Solomon was yoked to the spirit of a slave and the conscience of a housemaid. He showed himself as far beneath Coke in moral dignity as he out-topped Coke in speculative genius. No Hindoo could have courted the great Akbar more slavishly than Bacon bowed himself before the despicable James. His wisdom, after all, was like that of the first Napoleon—a fair guide to present advantage, but a false light to any lasting good. His worldly career points a moral strangely akin to that of the great Corsican upstart. His utter downfall in the very noon of his worldly greatness suggests the fittest answer to those amiable theorists, who shrink from reading the sad truths that nature loves to scrawl over her fairest workmanship. For all his splendid parts, his loveable qualities, his social charms, his friends at court, his lack of personal foes abroad; yet, when his hour of trial came, he fell at once to the ground, covered with shame, abandoned by his most powerful friends, regarded with scornful pity by those who had to pronounce his doom. Could ruin so utter have befallen the pure high-hearted patriot, whom Mr. Dixon, misled by his heated fancy, has arrayed in the outward likeness of Francis Bacon?"

To "William Pitt" two essays are devoted, and in these, as we have already intimated, the eulogy seems to us greatly overdone. It is true Mr. Trotter admits that the minister was open to censure for the undue severity of his home administration during the early years of the French revolutionary war, that his famous sinking fund scheme was unsound, and that he showed an excessive deference to the will of the sovereign. But, in spite of the constant failure of Pitt's war measures, he still clings to the notion that Pitt was a great war minister; though it does not seem to us that he is at all successful in explaining the ambiguity (to say the least of it) of Pitt's conduct on two remarkable occasions. Indeed, he passes over in the most cursory manner one of those passages which have given rise to most discussion, and which have never yet, in our judgment, received any explanation altogether creditable to the minister. It is all very well for Mr. Trotter to say that Pitt's conduct towards Warren Hastings seems "clear to our eyes," and that, "caring only to see justice done, Pitt voted against a renewal of the fresh charge on the ground that Hastings's cruelty to the Rohillas had been condoned by subsequent services to the State;" but slight observations of this kind furnish no sort of answer to Lord Macaulay's questions how it came that, after voting against impeaching Hastings for having hired out a British army for the extermination of an unoffending race, Pitt could then vote in favour of impeaching him because, having the right to extort a subsidy from the Rajah of Benares, he had fixed that subsidy at an unduly high figure? or how, having voted against the Rohilla charge on the ground of Hastings's subsequent career, Pitt could afterwards sanction eighteen charges of impeachment arising out of that very subsequent career whose merits were in the first instance regarded as sufficient to atone for the infamy of his conduct towards the finest race in India? The only plausible solution of the enigma is, that Pitt was on this occasion betrayed into an obvious inconsistency by his love of power and his jealousy of a possible rival. There is strong evidence to show that in ultimately supporting the impeachment he acted under the advice of Dundas, one of the shrewdest but least scrupulous of his advisers; and it is notorious that the favour shown to Hastings by the King may well have excited the alarm both of that keen observer, and of a minister who could brook no rival near his throne. Then with regard to the great minister's retirement in 1801, although we quite agree with Mr. Trotter in referring it exclusively to his difficulty with the King on the Catholic question, we must point out that it is by no means easy to understand how it was that, having declined office in February, 1801, because the King refused his assent to the measure of Catholic relief, Pitt could reconcile it to his sense of public duty to offer to resume office in March, although the King's assent was still withheld. It is, we venture to think, still more difficult to justify his subsequent conduct towards Addington, or to excuse the unfortunate step which he took in accepting office in 1803 without the assistance which both Fox and Lord Greville were ready to give him, had he not acquiesced in the King's determination to exclude the former statesman from office. Pitt was, no doubt, a very great man, but he is certainly far more open to criticism than readers of Mr. Trotter's laudatory essay would be led to suppose.

From the paper on "Sheridan" we take in conclusion an amusing account of one of the frolics in which the Prince of Wales, Fox, and Sheridan, were in the habit of indulging. The three friends, after a drinking bout at the "Salutation Tavern," in Tavistock-court, sallied out, visited a famous "boosing ken" in St. Giles's, got into a row with the *habitués* of that place, and were ultimately taken

up by the "Charleys," and brought before the nearest parish constable:—

"We must imagine for ourselves the amount of 'chaff' which two at least of the supposed culprits poured on the head of that modern Dogberry. His grave questions were parried by humorous and ironical replies, in which he could only read the corroboration of their guilt, enhanced by a wicked desire to make fun of his sacred self. At last, on pretence of turning king's evidence against his comrades, Sheridan persuaded the constable to send for Justice Graham, before whom the deposition might be made in due form. After the arrival of this gentleman, an old acquaintance of the accused, poor Dogberry found the tables gradually turning against him. Entering into the spirit of the joke, without wishing to betray the real names and rank of his friends, Graham drove the unlucky official nearly wild by working on his fears of a heavy fine for the false imprisonment of three perfectly innocent gentlemen, one of whom had been often seen in company with the Duke of York, while another was known to be a real prince: 'a Persian prince,' added Sheridan, 'upon his travels, seeking information, and picking up pretty girls to grace his father's court.' Utterly amazed by all he heard, not knowing whom or what to believe, half suspecting a hoax, and badgered beyond all endurance by the repeated strokes of Sheridan's merciless pleasantry, the puzzled, panic-stricken underling grasped readily at the first excuse for getting rid of his tormentors, who left him in his chair exhausted, like a criminal reprieved from death just as the drop was about to fall."

#### TRAVELS BY "UMBRA."\*

On the head of every dull reader of this remarkable "book of travels" be all the consequences of either complete or partial unbelief in the wonders related by its author. To listen to such a traveller's tale as "Umbra" tells, and not believe it, were to insult the wise credulity of the age in which we live. Here is the author's own declaration of truthfulness. He says:—"Unknown and mysterious creature, Reader, I say—know this, be well assured of one thing—that truth, sacred truth, guides my pen, and all that is here related is matter-of-fact history. Why was Othello plunged into horrible misfortune? I have my own theory on the subject. It was because he did not adhere to the truth. It was well for him to discourse to Desdemona of cannibals and anthropophagi, if she cared to hear of such people; but when he gravely assured that fair, unsuspecting creature that he had seen men whose heads did grow beneath their shoulders, by this wilful departure from truth, by this monstrous fabrication, he no doubt incurred the penalties of avenging Nemesis. Conceive such a man dining-out in Venice, and telling these traveller's stories over his wine! Moreover, I remember that Darwin once said, that to tell a Saga wrong was reckoned a great offence against public morality! Therefore, O Reader, place implicit faith in my narrative." Who is "Umbra," that he is to relate marvels, and none but blockheads are to be allowed to question their verity? If modesty inspires confidence, what can inspire more confidence than this account of himself? "Of myself little can be said. I was called to the Bar, and have no doubt whatever that I should have become Lord Chancellor if I had ever had a brief given me, but I never had—'*C'est le premier pas qui coûte*.' I could not invent briefs." Surely nothing can be more engaging than the frankness of this avowal! This credible witness, then, tells us the eventful story of a tour through Iceland which, in company with five remarkable companions, he made twenty years ago. This is what he says of each of the five:—

"First. He who by tacit consent was reckoned the head of our party was surnamed Archibald M'Diarmid. I believe the addition of esquire is considered a sort of insult in the Highlands, whence he came, so I omit it. M'Diarmid, like Crichton, did all things well, being a first-rate sportsman, a good draughtsman, was a follower of science, and an author to boot. He possessed qualities of coolness, deliberation, and courage, that would have fitted him to be the leader of a party bound on an expedition far more adventurous than our own. He was, moreover, a pleasant companion; but, lest it should be thought that I am describing too perfect a character, I will admit that he cherished two superstitions; first, he believed in Ossian; secondly, he held it as an article of faith, not to be doubted, that his tent was completely waterproof.

"Next to him, I will introduce Mr. Darwin, a really celebrated personage. He had written a learned book on Northern Antiquities, in recompense of which a Scandinavian potentate created him a knight of the second class of the Order of the Walrus, the ribbon of which illustrious Order was suspended across his brawny shoulders. Of Herculean height and strength, with his long black beard descending to his waist, he resembled a Viking of old, and such I conceive he at times supposed himself to be. In fact, so deeply was he imbued with the spirit of antiquity, that a continual antagonism between the past and the present, or rather, I should say, between the imaginary and the real, existed in his breast. He was two gentlemen at once. Though a sincerely religious man, still, I cannot help suspecting that in his heart of hearts he looked on Christianity as a somewhat *parvenu* creed, and deemed that Thor, Odin, Freya, &c., were the proper objects of worship. In dull fact, he was an excellent citizen, a householder, paying rates and taxes, an affectionate husband, and the good father of a family; but in the dream, the fancy—the spirit, Master Shallow—he was a Berserker, a Norse pirate, plunging the seas in his dragon-beaked barque, making his trusty falchion ring on the casques of his enemies, slaying, pillaging, burning, ravishing, and thus gratifying a laudable taste for adventure. I fear he preferred

\* Travels by "Umbra." Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas.



the glorious dream to the sober reality. I think he inwardly pined at his own respectability, that he considered himself misplaced in the narrow sphere of duties. But he was a most agreeable comrade, and till the fatal end. . . .

"Third, was Ragner, Lord Lodbrog, an Irish peer, and then a student at the University. He derived his descent from a chieftain of that name, who had slain a dragon, after encasing himself in impenetrable hairy breeches, and it was still a custom in his family, out of respect to this ancestor, to wear hirsute nether garments. How gay was Lodbrog! the life and soul of our company, his cheerfulness never failed. As he cantered on ahead of all, 'cum spumantis equi foderet calcaribus armos,' a crimson sash round his waist, the plumage of the wild swan in his cap, and round his shoulders slung a horn, which had erst, to the great disgust of the Dons, awoke the echoes of Peckwater Quad, he was hailed by us as decidedly the 'Skarzmadr' or dandy of the party.

"Fourth, was Mr. X., a member of Parliament, who had come out late in the session. I am not aware that he ever enlightened the Senate by his eloquence. He was rather a silent, reserved person, and his chief talent seemed to consist in smoking tobacco. However, to do him justice, he was always good-tempered, lent a willing hand at the packing in the morning, and never bored any of us by quoting blue-books, which is much to his credit. When he did speak, it was generally to make some citation from the classics or Shakespeare, which was tedious, but happily brief.

"Fifth, was Mr. Digwell, a relative of Mr. Darwin, Fellow of a college at Cambridge, and, unfortunately for him, smitten with a taste for geology, which had impelled him to come to Iceland. He was a tall, thin man, and always carried a hammer, to aid him in his favourite pursuit. He also brought an ancient military saddle, which an ancestor of his had used in the Duke of Marlborough's campaigns. On an Iceland pony it seemed somewhat misplaced. Besides his zeal for science, Digwell was passionately fond of poetry, and for hours together would repeat verses embodying the mysterious longings of the soul. Unluckily, nature had endowed him with another craving, entirely opposed to romance, namely, a most inordinate appetite. He left his hall at Cambridge, where the table groaned beneath ample joints, he left the pleasant Combination-room and its delicacies, to come to the barren regions, where even bread is an unknown luxury; for no grain will ripen in Iceland. Never was there a more signal refutation of the fallacy of that impostor, Goldsmith's Hermit, that 'Man wants but little here below, nor wants that little long,' for Digwell wanted a great deal, and wanted it a long time without getting it. All that he must have suffered to the end can never be known. Poor, poor Digwell!"

Thus composed, the party made for the Geysers, and then, after having seen all the wonders of the boiling fountains, plunged into the interior wilds, where every spot was "hallowed ground" to the lore-exalted Darwin. But all they saw and said and did during the six weeks they thus spent together, only "Umbra" the voracious is fitted to recount. Much they said and did and suffered. Their store of provisions ran out. Digwell, the ever-hungry, pined and sank under the irremediable affliction. When almost within reach of relief, he succumbed to the one weakness of his nature. "We gave him whatever of sustenance was left," says "Umbra," "but he shook his head over the soup-can, and pronounced three times, in solemn accent, 'Watery, watery, watery!'" After bequeathing his military saddle to the British Museum, his speech became somewhat incoherent, his latest distinguishable words being, "A beefsteak should be dressed with oyster-sauce." "A better or more pure-hearted man never existed," is all that "Umbra's" feelings permit him to say on the mournful occasion. Another of the party made a tragic ending—Darwin, the Anglo-Scandinavian, Knight of the second class of the Order of the Walrus. It was thus the fatal event took place. In a hapless moment, "Umbra"—put out of sorts, he supposes, by an icy cold bath he had taken that morning—irritated the learned man to madness, by affecting not to know who was the poet Snorro. Here is his own account of all that happened:—

"'Snorro!' I repeated in surprise, 'who on earth is Snorro?' 'Ignorant, soulless being! are not these things written in the Saga?' 'The Saga, Mr. Darwin?' said I, 'I believe the Saga to be a humbug!' Scarcely had I let this imprudent word escape, than the Herculean frame of my friend was convulsed with passion. His eye glared with fury. Grasping the hammer of Mr. Digwell, which he chanced to have borrowed, he with one blow felled me from my horse. 'Die, blasphemer, die!' shouted he, frantic with rage; and I have no doubt he was about to finish my existence, when the earth shook beneath us. A mightier power than — was abroad. A long-extinct volcano, resuming activity, suddenly woke to life. With horrid roar, with hideous belch, a column of mingled fire and smoke arose, and an enormous rocky mass, ninety tons in weight, upheaved three kilometres in the air, descending, crushed Mr. Darwin and his horse flat as a pancake. I had read 'The Last Days of Pompeii,' so I knew the proper remark to make:—'The earth has preserved her child!' and then, with the pain of the blow I had received, I swooned away."

Of the six travellers, three only came back to England, Lord Lodbrog staying in Iceland, to marry an island-princess, the Lady of Hitardal. So ends the first part of "Umbra's" book, and, before turning to the second part, it only occurs to us to say, that, if either Mr. Darwin or Mr. Digwell has ever enjoyed anything more than the account here given of his death and burial, he is a lucky fellow, and "happy man be his dole."

After the storm, calm. For years, "Umbra" lived in such quiet as belonged to Chatterville, a "small and pretty town in the West of England," which "arrogated to itself, and still arrogates, the merit of possessing the very best society. Nothing commercial, nothing brassy about it. No Birmingham coin passed current in Chatterville; all was refined and elegant, or, what was just as

good, so considered itself." Here he lived, as best he might, until the awful ghosts of Darwin and Digwell appeared to him in a dream, and that of Darwin thus addressed him:—

"'Is it well of thee, O Umbra, having known us, to decline to a lower range, and to waste days that might be spent in toil and endurance, in a provincial noodledom?—to dawdle among talking tabbies and caterwauling curates?' (It will be observed that the ghost of my poor friend preserved the awful energy of language habitual to him in his lifetime.) 'Say,' said the apparition, giving a formidable twist to his hammer, 'is this well of thee?' And I gasped out, 'It is not well.'"

Bent on doing better with his time, he went to London and, in Rotten-row, met Mr. X.

"As we proceeded up the Row," he says, "Mr. X. recognised many acquaintances among the equestrians and loungers on foot, and pointed out to me the chief literary and other notabilities of the London world: Bosworth, who under the name of *Siccus*, wrote the celebrated letter to the *Times* on the adulteration of beer; old Mr. Joseph Miller, who furnishes jocose articles for the weekly *Sneer*; Colonel Percy Hopkins, who leads the cotillon at all the fashionable balls; the Chancellor of the Exchequer; Mr. Wheatly, who gives champagne luncheons at Ascot (X. made a most respectful obeisance to this gentleman); and the Vice-president of the Royal Geographical Society, walking with the Brothers Seckendorf, who had lived for two years in Oriental Siberia on camel's dung. I mused on the various paths by which men achieve fame."

In company with Mr. X., he went up the Rhine, and to the Tyrol. The friends met with few adventures; but the characters they came across were an ample compensation. Among a score of others, there was "Johnny Pipes," who was "born bald, and so continued without a vestige of hair on his head." Then, "Arthur Woolley," who "was to have gone into the Church, but, as he always slept Sunday round, that was an objection; otherwise, he would no doubt have been a bishop by this time. He went into a public office, and it did admirably." But, loudest of all, there was "Sir Herbert O'Dowd, the Queen's Plenipotentiary at Samarcand." Of most wonderful adventures had he been the hero. In the Brazils he had seen a roc's egg; and he had helped a beautiful abbess to escape from a convent. "The first time I heard the latter story," remarks "Umbra," "the abbess became Lady O'Dowd; on the second occasion, she was bricked up alive in the convent dungeon. I cannot, therefore, speak with any certainty as to her fate." With a polyglot curse, poured upon the luckless head of a waiter who had roused him out of his morning sleep to offer him some panoramic views, Sir Herbert O'Dowd tags the brilliant close of a book of brilliant humour. The "Travels of 'Umbra'" will not be forgotten. Few books have ever been written in which the humour is more admirably sustained; fewer still, in which the satire is at once so keenly pointed and so thoroughly good-natured.

#### BOOKS OF POEMS.\*

POETRY, in the present day, has become almost synonymous with self-analysis. A habit of introspection, amounting at times to a morbid passion, is observable in more than half the poems one takes up. Narrative is held of small account, because it draws the writer's attention off himself; and even when a tale is told, it is generally so contrived that it shall be autobiographical, in order that the supposed hero may keep himself well in view, and may at any given moment lay his feelings on the dissecting-table, curiously anatomise them to the last quivering fibre, and entertain us with his self-evoked cries of agony. For the same reason, we have very few poetical dramas, while such as are produced are for the most part poor in substance and deficient in character. The poet is thinking too deeply of his own joys and sorrows,—his "experiences" of life, which are probably more imaginary than real,—his "soul-conflicts," and other grand idealisations of what, after all, is very often little better than a diseased egotism. This tendency has greatly increased since the publication, fifteen years ago, of Tennyson's "In Memoriam." That exquisite and profound revelation of a deep personal grief—a grief truly felt, not simulated—has set all our minor poets fancying that nothing will interest us so much as to hear how their hearts are consumed with sorrow, and their souls darkened with conflicting faith and doubt; how they were jilted when young, or were cheated by death of the maiden they loved; and how they think this world rather a poor affair, and are extremely impatient for the next. Of the ten books of poems now before us, several are marked by these characteristics. That the result is monotonous we cannot deny; but we must wait till some new Tennyson sets another fashion.

There is, perhaps, a little too much of this in some of Mr. Allingham's "Fifty Modern Poems;" but the writer is a man of too

\* Fifty Modern Poems. By William Allingham. London: Bell & Daldy.

Idylls and Legends of Inverburn. By Robert Buchanan, Author of "Under-tones." London: Strahan.

Charibel and other Poems. By W. J. Linton. London: Simpkin, Marshall, & Co.

The Romance of the Searlet Leaf, and other Poems; with Adaptations from the Provencal Troubadours. By Hamilton Aldé. London: Moxon & Co.

Songs of Love and Death. By George Eric Mackay. London: Chapman & Hall.

Short Poems. By Kenneth Henry Digby, Esq. London: Longman & Co.

Spells & Voices. By Ada Keyne. London: Trübner & Co.

Markham, and other Poems. By Carlton Webb. London: Murray & Co.

Mira, a Tale; and other Poems. By B. Burford Rawlings. London: Murray & Co.

Sister Theresa, née Ryan, the Abducted Nun. A Metrical Narrative. By James Lord, of the Inner Temple, Esq., Barrister-at-Law. London: Macintosh.



rich and genial a spirit to be always harping on one string, and that string the least sympathetic. Mr. Allingham has not only great powers of mental analysis; he is gifted also with fancy, tenderness, humour, dramatic insight, buoyant playfulness, and a strong, manly perception of the external world. He can tell a story in a way to interest you, and sing a song that shall be words and music in one. If his voice trembles now and then with the ineradicable Irish tearfulness, he is not without the heartier and more jovial characteristics which are at least assigned by tradition to the race, though we are somewhat doubtful whether they really exist to the extent we see depicted in the conventional Paddy of the novel and the farce. These "Fifty Poems" (a few of which have been published before) are worth preserving, and will be preserved, for they have the stamp of life on them. Many are instinct with Irish feeling, and the scenery of several is drawn from Irish vales and mountains; but there is nothing that will not come home heartily to English sympathies as well. Others, again, belong to the general world of humanity, without reference to local or sectional divisions. Among these are the powerful and poignant sketch called "George Levison, or the Schoolfellows," and the brief revelation of concentrated wretchedness entitled "Emily," which has all the intense, reserved, smouldering pathos of some of Browning's poems. With respect to the latter, it may, perhaps, be questioned whether such subjects are fit for poetical treatment at all; but there can be no doubt as to the skill with which the scene, and the whole previous story which makes it so full of miserable meaning, are set before the reader. "Southwell Park," too, has a good deal of tragic power in its fragmentary intimations of crime, and punishment, and remorse; but we like it, not so much for its story as for the delicious passages of pastoral description which it contains. One of these we must find room to quote:—

"The Summer's youth is now at prime.  
Swiftly a season whirls away.  
Two days past, the bladed corn  
Whisper'd nothing of harvest-time;  
Already a tinge of brown is born  
On the barley-spears that slightly sway;  
The plumes of purple-seeded grass,  
Bowing and bending as you pass,  
Our mowers at the break of day  
Shall sweep them into swathes of hay.  
So the season whirls away.  
And every aspect we must learn,  
Southwell's every mood discern;  
All sides, over the country speed,  
'She upon her milk-white steed,  
And he upon his grey,' to roam  
Gladly, turn more gladly home;  
Plan, improve, and see our tenants;  
Visit neighbours, for pleasure or penance;  
Excellent people some, no doubt,  
And the rest will do to talk about.  
June, July, and August: next  
September comes; and here we stand  
To watch those swallows, some clear day,  
With a birdish trouble, half-perplex'd,  
Bidding adieu in their tribe's old way,  
Though the sunbeam coaxes them yet to stay;  
Swinging through the populous air,  
Dipping, every bird, in play,  
To kiss its flying image there.  
And when Autumn's wealthy heavy hand  
Paints with brown gold the beechen leaves,  
And the wind comes cool, and the latest sheaves,  
Quivers fill'd with bounty, rest  
On stubble-slope,—then we shall say  
Adieu for a time, our fading bow'rs,  
Pictures within and out-of-doors,  
And all the petted greenhouse flow'rs.  
But, though your harp remains behind,  
To keep the piano company,  
Your gentle Spirit of Serenades  
Shall watch with us how daylight fades  
Where sea and air enhance their dyes  
A thousand-fold for lovers' eyes.  
And we shall fancy on far-off coast  
The chill pavilions of the frost,  
And landscapes in a snow-wreath lost."

In the way of humour, of which Mr. Allingham has a pleasant, quiet vein, we must mention "Old Master Grunsey and Goodman Dodd," a dialogue between two Stratford-on-Avon gossips on the stirring news that Master Will Shakespeare, who had been up in "Lunnon," making money by writing and acting plays, has just bought New-place. The provincial English is excellently managed, more especially considering that the writer is an Irishman, who, we should suppose, has not had much experience in Anglo-Saxon "Doric;" but it hardly smacks sufficiently of the Shakespearian time.

We turn from the poems of an Irishman to those of a Scotchman. Mr. Buchanan's "Idyls and Legends of Inverburn" show an increase of power on the volume entitled "Undertones," which we noticed in the early part of last year, a more positive knowledge of nature, and a greater simplicity of language, yet with no lack of imaginative warmth and richness. The poet has forsaken the fields and mountain heights of Thessaly and Arcadia for the more familiar scenes of his native country. He describes himself in the "Preamble" as quitting London for the little village of

Inverburn, partly for the sake of change of air, partly to escape for awhile from the uncongenial society of one Higgs,—

"The shallow cockney with the humorous vein;"

for of course Mr. Buchanan, being a Scotchman, could not possibly write a book without having his little fling at "cockneys." Higgs, however, appears to be, in one way or another, an unescapable presence; for the poet cannot get him out of his thoughts even when at Inverburn, and, having come to the conclusion that

"Higgs survives,  
Higgism is, has been, and still will be,"

he philosophically determines to sing in despite of him and it, and presently plunges into the midst of his "Idyls and Legends." Why Mr. Buchanan should empty such vials of wrath upon the good old Saxon name of Higgs, as anciently familiar with West of England soil as the very oak-roots, when there is nothing in the nature of things why a Higgs should not be among the best and pleasantest of men, is past our conjecture; but we suppose a poet must have his way in such matters. The poems that ensue are, for the most part, drawn from actual Scottish life, as it exists in our days, these being varied by a few elfin fancies and ghostly traditions of the North. The more matter-of-fact sketches are in the manner of Mr. Tennyson's poems of familiar life, allowing for the difference between English and Scotch; but the imitation is not slavish, and is very probably involuntary. Mr. Buchanan writes with great nerve and force. His delineation of character is often life-like; his pathos, deep, true, and homely; his descriptions of scenery, full of pastoral beauty, tenderness, and sweetness; his touches of the supernatural, instinct with "eerie" feeling; and his versification easy, varied, and expressive. We look forward to his taking a place among the younger poets of the day.

Mr. W. J. Linton's "Claribel and other Poems" is a singular volume—the volume of an artist, and of a good artist too. Not only do we find head and tail-pieces to the several poems, daintily sketched by the author himself; but in many of the pages the type is interlaced with sketches in a very quaint and a very pretty manner. The peaks and ledges of a rock, the straggling branches of a tree, a bit of fern or grass, a film of cloud, a scattering flight of birds dying off into minutest specks, or a shower of blossoms, will appear sometimes between line and line, occasionally sharing the same line with the type itself, when a space is left open. These sketches are executed with the utmost freedom and grace, as all those will readily believe who have seen Mr. Linton's illustrations to his wife's pleasant book on the English Lakes, published a few months back. The poems themselves are animated throughout by a noble feeling of belief in humanity and reverence for God. Mr. Linton is one of the few men in these times who have retained up to middle life the reforming ardour of their more youthful days in 1848, when so many who are now content to "rest and be thankful" were thrilling with the daily fall of thrones and the supposed coming of the Golden Age. We do not agree with all his views, judging by some intimations of them in the present volume; but we honour him for his sincerity, his courage, and his faith, and for the great virtue of holding positive opinions in an age when even young men balance between yea and nay. He is not a poet of the first class; but his verses are truthful, tender, graceful, and high-souled, and his volume is better worth reading than many another of greater pretensions.

Several of Mr. Hamilton Aide's poems have already appeared in *All the Year Round* and other periodicals. They are agreeably and elegantly written; but the author, we conceive, is too fluent, and divides his mind too much among a multitude of subjects. He might do more by doing less. His adaptations from the Provençal Troubadours, however, are interesting.

The "Songs of Love and Death" of Mr. George Eric Mackay will receive a friendly welcome on account of his father's long connection with letters. The songs in question are pleasing and rhythmical; but we cannot say that they have any of the higher qualities of verse. However, we may perhaps look for better things in the future.

Of Mr. Kenelm Henry Digby we need only remark that he appears to us not merely to have no idea of the nature of poetry, but to have only very blind and irregular ideas of the nature of verse. Miss Ada Keyne we would fain criticize in a kindly mood, for the sake of her quiet, amiable, womanly spirit; but her stanzas are not above the ordinary level. Nor can we say anything higher of "Markham" and "Mira," the productions of Mr. Webbe and Mr. Rawlings, in neither of whom can we see more than a taste for verse-writing, unaccompanied by the deeper instincts of poetry. Mr. Lord's "Sister Theresa" is an odd poem. It is founded on the alleged case of the forcible removal of a refractory nun from London to some place on the Continent, which created so much agitation and discussion last autumn. A specimen stanza or two will give the reader a better idea of the style of this poem than we could possibly do by any amount of critical writing:—

"From Mile End to Great Ormond Street,  
The distance is not great;  
Whether three miles, or more or less,  
'T were bootless here to state.  
\* \* \* \* \*

"He called, as he was told to do,  
In Ormond Street again,  
To say they had arrived all safe,  
And caught the Dover train."



"And when he, from the *Telegraph*,  
The 'painful case' did hear,  
He wrote the letter which at length  
Doth in our *Notes* appear."

That last touch is a master-piece: a poet referring to his own annotations of his own work is certainly a novelty. We will not offend Mr. Lord's Protestantism by saying that his style is Pre-Raphaelitish; but it is undoubtedly very realistic.

#### MALAYAN INDIA.\*

MR. CAMERON'S good-looking volume contains a descriptive account of Singapore, Penang, and Malacca, and was written with a view to afford us stay-at-home travellers some glimpse of the great beauty and importance of the possessions which, at present administered from Calcutta, are about to be placed under the direct control of the Imperial Government. These possessions have thriven so well under their present rule, that it seems almost a pity to disturb the existing order of things; but the fact is, that the Bengal people, finding India quite large enough to manage, left these far-eastern settlements pretty much to their own devices.

British Singapore does not date further back than 1819, when Sir Stamford Raffles selected it as a half-way house on the road to China: its principal inhabitants were Malays, monkeys, and tigers; now, the premises of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Company alone are worth £70,000; there are mercantile docks and naval docks; and ships of all countries from the *Alabama* to a Chinese junk, "prahus, pukats, and tongkangs," resort to its harbours. It has one of the largest cathedrals in India (only just completed after nine years' labour), and a literary institution. As for its commerce, never did free-trade more loudly assert its own rights. In forty-five years the imports have risen from zero to £6,500,000, and the exports from the same starting-point to £5,500,000, of which one million and a half come from England, and only £650,000 go to England. Singapore is, in fact, a great entrepot—a huge Eastern bazaar, where you can get everything you want, and a great deal you do not want—such as tigers, alligators, and boa-constrictors. The last, Mr. Cameron tells us, are "harmless to man, but destructive to poultry," thinking nothing of breakfasting off four or five chickens at a time. The tigers are not such respecters of persons, and their victims are 365 per annum, or one per day. To be sure, the victims are "almost invariably Chinamen;" but the prospect of having your life dashed out by the crushing stroke of a tiger's paw cannot add greatly to the enjoyment of a picnic at Singapore. Still, it is comforting to learn that tigers are sad cowards, and that if you face them they will sneak away. One would not willingly try the experiment, but Mr. Cameron assures us that it has succeeded:—

"I have, however, heard the following account told by an old Malay of an attack which he prevented by an appeal to the better nature of the animal. He was returning home after a visit to town to his house at Selita, along that part of the road which I have described as being the most thickly surrounded by jungle. He had his little child, a boy of seven or eight years old, slung behind him, and both were contentedly chewing away at jagong [Indian corn], when the father on lifting up his eyes saw a tiger crouching down right in front of him, and apparently preparing for a spring. Calling to mind the old saying, he gasped out a few sounds, and found that they appeared to arrest the tiger; but being anxious not to risk the life of his son, he moved slowly backward to a tree which he remembered to have passed a few yards behind. The tiger advanced upon him step for step as he retreated. When the old man's back touched the tree, he told his son to climb up. This the boy did; and the father, relieved of anxiety on his account, drew his wood-knife and commenced an advance, arguing all the while with the keenest logic—sharpened no doubt by the occasion—that it would be infinitely better for both to part without quarreling. This advance and retreat continued for about fifty yards, when the tiger, either persuaded by the logic, or daunted by the bravery of the man, turned tail, and bolted into the jungle."

The population of Singapore is nearly 95,000, of whom 13,000 are Malays (the aborigines of the settlement), 60,000 Chinese, 10,000 natives of India, about 500 Europeans, and 400 Sepoy soldiers to protect them. It says well for our rule that notwithstanding this proportion—disproportion rather—the most thorough good order has been maintained. Sometimes a Malay or Bugis, carrying a large dagger in each hand, runs amuck down the streets, stabbing and cutting right and left. Immediately there is an outcry, and he is hunted down, and killed like a mad dog. This singular frenzy is supposed to be a sort of religious suicide—only they provoke death at the hand of others.

Society appears to be very select at Singapore, and so fastidious that the ladies will refuse to dance with a *vis-à-vis* who may happen to have a skin so dark as to betray the Indian blood in his veins. But then the merchants live well, and are hospitable. The town has a fives-court and a cricket-club, and a band upon the esplanade twice a week. As soon as the sun goes down, comes the great event of the day, and a dinner at Singapore is one not to be lightly esteemed. The European residents eat well and drink well, and ice is "an invariable adjunct to all beverages"—we presume coffee and tea would be excepted. Everybody is in bed at ten, to rise

next morning at five, when the gun at Fort Canning gives the signal for all to be stirring.

Mr. Cameron's political suggestions we must leave to those whom they concern; we will only add that we have found his book entertaining, and the pictures of Eastern life and scenery attractive.

#### SHORT NOTICES.

*The Fortnightly Review*. Edited by George Henry Lewes. No. I. (Chapman & Hall.)—We have great doubt as to whether any such issue as a fortnightly summary of politics, literature, science, and other departments of intellectual activity, is required, or will be cordially received, or even clearly understood, by the English public. The division of time is not sufficiently marked; the periods of publication do not obviously define themselves; the interval is too long for the excitement of immediate discussion, and too short for mature and elaborate criticism. It is true that the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, published in the same manner, is a great success; but it can never be safely inferred that what is liked in France will be liked in England. The projectors of the *Fortnightly Review* admit that it is an experiment, surrounded by many difficulties; and we can only hope that the experiment will be successful. We cannot but wish, however, that the *Review* had been issued monthly, instead of fortnightly. In the 128 large pages now before us, there is quite enough reading of a solid kind for a month; and we are not without a fear that readers will refuse to be dosed so repeatedly even with the best of writing. Nor can we imagine that, in these days of cheapness, many persons will be found to give four shillings a month for any miscellany, however excellent. A good Monthly Review is really needed, and might, we should think, command a large public; but the managers of the new periodical have determined to try the more novel experiment, and they have certainly done so under the best of auspices. Mr. G. H. Lewes, the editor, is one of the ablest literary men of the day, and a writer of large scientific knowledge as well; and in this first number we find, besides his own contributions, the first of a series of essays on "The English Constitution," by Mr. Walter Bagehot; two chapters of a story by Mr. Anthony Trollope, called "The Belton Estate;" a thoughtful review by George Eliot of Mr. Lecky's work on Rationalism; some "Personal Recollections of President Lincoln," by M. D. Conway (in which the writer says he once saw Wilkes Booth on the stage, and has not often beheld "a face into which more vile passions were distilled"); a dialogue by Sir John Herschel "on Atoms;" a paper on "The Iron-Masters' Trade Union," by Mr. F. Harrison; and some others of less note. The editor's own articles are one on "The Heart and the Brain," full of curious physiological facts, and the opening of a discourse on the "Principles of Success in Literature." A summary of "Public Affairs" is added towards the close of the number. The greater part of this is devoted to the assassination of President Lincoln, and the tone is decidedly Northern. The "Notices of New Books" at the end are, we think, too short for interest; and we believe it will be found necessary, if the *Review* seeks for anything like an extensive sale, to include in future numbers a greater proportion of articles having an immediate bearing on the events of the day. The first number, however, is a remarkably good one; and it should be added that it is very handsomely printed.

*Mental Exertion in Relation to Health*. By Amariah Brigham, M.D. Edited, with a Chapter on the Cause and Treatment of Indigestion in Literary Men, by Arthur Leared, M.D., M.R.I.A., &c. (J. C. Hotten.)—Some years have elapsed since the late Dr. Brigham's work on the effect of mental exertion on the health was first printed in America, and it has subsequently gone through several editions, both there and here. It is perhaps more commonly acknowledged now than formerly, that over-work of the brain is in the highest degree prejudicial to the human being; yet, when we find so many persons dying from some insidious form of cerebral disturbance, or from heart disease, the result of excessive mental toil or anxiety, we are led to doubt whether the lesson has as yet been learned sufficiently well. The little work which Dr. Leared has now edited contains a highly sensible and convincing statement of the lamentable evils which ensue in after-life from "cramming" the minds of children with a larger amount of intellectual food than they can digest without injury to the brain, the subtle, delicate, and mysterious organ of thought. This is a subject especially necessary to be considered at the present time, when a high standard of education is maintained in most classes, and when competition in the race of life has been carried on to so serious an extent. "It is already rumoured," says Dr. Leared, "that some of the selections for the Civil Services, under the present system, have not been quite successful. A want of elasticity and vigour of character has been observed." Another important subject is the distressing dyspepsia which frequently afflicts men who follow intellectual pursuits. This has been treated both by Dr. Brigham and Dr. Leared, who agree in regarding excess of brain-work as one great cause of indigestion. Moderate mental exercise, however, tends to preserve the health; so that in this as in all things we have simply to observe the golden mean.

*A Familiar History of British India*.—*A Familiar History of the United States of America*. (Darton & Hodge.)—The historical events occurring in British India and in the United States of America are not as familiar to the English public as their importance demands; and we are therefore glad to see these two neat little handbooks setting forth the main incidents in a plain and readable fashion. The first is by Mr. Stocqueler, revised and brought down to the present time by Mr. James H. Siddons; the second is by Mr. Siddons entirely, and comes down to the fall of Richmond, though it does not include the assassination of Mr. Lincoln.

We have also received Vol. IV. of the new edition of Mr. Merivale's *History of the Romans under the Empire* (Longmans);—Vol. IV. of the *Collected Writings of Edward Irving* (Strahan);—a new edition

\* Our Tropical Possessions in Malayan India. By John Cameron. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.



of Mr. Henry Mayhew's violent work on *German Life and Manners as seen in Saxony* (W. H. Allen & Co.);—*Counsels for Communicants*, by the Rev. George Venables (Macintosh);—*Hardwicke's Elementary Books: Pneumatics* (Hardwicke);—a second edition of *Heaven our Home* (Wertheim, Macintosh, & Hunt);—and *Church and Queen*: five speeches by Mr. Disraeli, 1860-64 (G. J. Palmer).

#### LITERARY GOSSIP.

THE statement recently made that comic pictorial art has never for twenty years been at a lower ebb than at present receives exemplification in the late issues of our weekly humorous sheets. The absence of the delightful Leech is felt more and more each week, and on Tenniel's shoulders appears now to rest the reputation of the long-lived, but not at the present moment very brilliant, *Punch*. Charles Bennett has been called in, and we hear of a new artist, from whom great things are expected; so that, ere long, a change may be expected in the conduct of Mr. *Punch's* issue. It was rumoured, a short time since, that the journal and plant might soon be expected in the market, awaiting the offer of the highest bidder; but this was probably one of those *on dits* which are continually flitting round clubs and news-offices, and confounding the gossips by never fulfilling themselves. Within the past few days, *Punch's* most successful rival, *Fun*, which some eighteen months since circulated to the extent of a hundred or a hundred and twenty thousand weekly, has changed hands; and a wealthy proprietor and a new staff of artists and contributors now promise to do their utmost to make it worthy of patronage. Latterly it has been so wretchedly conducted, and with such worthless illustrations, that its circulation—notwithstanding the present army of shoe-black, steamboat, and omnibus boys, who all appear to have a fondness for cheap literature—has fallen off to 30,000 per week.

The next number of the *Shilling Magazine* will, we believe, be published by Mr. Bosworth, of Regent-street, at the house where *Fraser's Magazine*, in the days of Fraser himself, was issued for so many years, and where Coleridge, Southey, Procter, Edward Irving (of the unknown tongues), Carlyle, Father Mahoney, Lockhart, Theodore Hook, Sir David Brewster, Jerdan (of the *Literary Gazette*), Croker, and Thackeray, used to meet in pleasant companionship, at the invitation of Dr. Maginn, the editor. The room in which the contributors to *Fraser* used to assemble, at the end of Mr. Bosworth's shop, is in almost the same condition as formerly. There is a picture of this assembly, by Maclise, which appeared many years ago in *Fraser's Magazine*.

A sale of books has just terminated which deserves a passing mention: we allude to the library of the late Horace Smith, Esq., one of the authors of "Rejected Addresses," which Messrs. Puttick & Simpson have dispersed during the week. There were no extraordinarily valuable books in the gathering, very little indeed that would attract the black-letter or rare-book connoisseur; but there were just such mementos of literary friendship and intercourse as assist arduous editors engaged upon tasks similar to Nichols's "Literary Anecdotes" and "Illustrations of Literary History." We found an almost complete collection of the first and bold editions of Shelley's remarkable performances,—his "Prometheus Unbound," "Cenci," "Rosalind and Helen," "Revolt of Islam," "Hellas, a Lyrical Drama" (published by the Messrs. Ollier), his "Alastor, or the Spirit of Solitude," and the daring "Queen Mab," with the still more daring notes. All these were presentation copies from the poet. There was also Shelley's "History of a Six Weeks' Tour through France," a scarce little volume, published anonymously. Copies of Leigh Hunt's various works, including some of his scarce pieces (almost all with the autograph compliments of the author), show an acquaintanceship between the two men as plainly as long letters, or other indisputable evidence. Hazlitt's works were here, with volumes presented by Mrs. Gore, Bernard Barton, R. Cumberland, and other notables of those days; but no presentation from Lord Byron, who, it is believed, privately regarded the Brothers Smith more in the light of scoffers at poetry and poets—poetasters with a ready knack at imitation and burlesque—than as "apprentices in the divine art."

Mr. Featherstonhaugh, the author of "The Canoe Voyage up the Minnaw Sotor" (Minnesota—one of the last States admitted into the Union), has a new story in the press, in two vols., entitled "Langleyhaugh, a tale of an Anglo-Saxon Family."

The days of the patterer—the bawler of fictitious murders and terrible accidents "which have just taken place in this neighbourhood"—(they were careful in their wording always)—are numbered. Catnach's shop is closed; poor old "Jemmy" is no more, and his ragged customers have taken to "real gold rings and straws for a penny," crossing-sweeping, and other avocations. The penny sensation "newspapers" have beaten them from the field, and limited liability companies have occupied their ground. One of the best concoctions of the patterers was a "true and full account of the Kavanaghites"—a society said to live without food or drink, spending their money in houses and fine clothes. Many thousands of this sheet were sold in the east end of London. A great success in all parts was the account of the cruel old woman who took little girls and had their eyes eaten out by black-beetles covered with limpit shells, so as to make them more successful objects of compassion in begging. But this will not compare with the bold conception of the following announcement, made in some of the morning papers:—"Wilkes Booth's Private Confession of the Murder of Lincoln; his connection with the Rebellion; the Killing of a Bosom Friend of Booth's by Federal Soldiers after the Battle of Bull's Run; their Brutal Conduct towards the Victim's Wife; her Brother and Booth then vow a terrible Oath of Vengeance and Retribution; Booth is implicated with slaying in Cold Blood of no less than Twenty-six Federal Officers; his plans for assassinating the President, General Grant, and all the Members of the Cabinet; and for burning the Capitol at Washington"—and so on for several lines further. The price of this precious sheet is 2d. It is already rumoured that efforts

are being made to dramatize the affair, giving Booth a sort of Jack Sheppard place in theatrical literature. An adaptation of "The Miller and his Men" to the same end is also spoken of.

The first and second volumes of an important French work have appeared during the week:—"Catalogue General des Ventes Publiques de Tableaux et Estampes depuis 1737 jusqu'à nos Jours; contenant—1, Les Prix des plus beaux Tableaux, Dessins, Miniatures, Estampes, Ouvrages à Figures et Livres sur les Arts. 2, Des Notes Biographiques, formant un Dictionnaire des Peintres et des Graveurs les plus célèbres de toutes les Ecoles, par M. P. Defer." The work will extend to eight vols., and will be of undoubted use to those who collect.

A clergyman, well-known to London archaeologists, the Rev. Thos. Hugo, F.S.A., is about to issue "The Bewick Collector; a descriptive Catalogue of a unique Collection of the works of Thomas and John Bewick, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne." Some years ago, we believe, this gentleman came into the possession of an extraordinary collection of Bewickiana, and to this he has added, from time to time, such works and illustrations as chance threw in his way. To the Bewicks, it is generally conceded, we are indebted for our present excellence in wood-engraving. The art produced admirable examples in the time of Dürer and Holbein, but had fallen so low in the last and preceding centuries, that the beautiful pictures from the gravures of the Bewicks took the world by surprise, and at this day are unrivalled in power and feeling. These men effected the revival which now bears fruit in our illustrated literature, and a carefully prepared list of their labours will be welcomed by connoisseurs and collectors. In the North, it is a fashion to collect Bewickiana, and the South Kensington Museum, as well as other public institutions, has made gatherings of these wood-engravings as copies for young artists and students. Messrs. LOVELL, REEVE, & Co. will publish the catalogue.

A curious piece of literary news comes to us from Paris. The Secretary to Prince Talleyrand, the great diplomatist half a century ago, recently died, and left some interesting and valuable papers entrusted to him by the great man's niece, the Duchess de Dino, on the understanding that he should not publish them for thirty years. These papers M. Bacour, the secretary, has left with the stipulation that they shall not be printed until 1888. It is further said that the documents are of considerable historic interest, giving amongst other important relations almost the complete history of the Congress of Vienna, whence came the famous treaties of 1815. The history is in Prince Talleyrand's hand-writing, and accompanying it are several documents and letters of equal importance.

A drama, entitled "The Youth of Lord Byron," from the pen of M. Glais-Bizouin, has just appeared in Paris. The author, a member of the Corps Législatif, has reputation as a humourist.

Messrs. SOUTHWATE & BARRETT, the old firm of book-auctioneers and print-sellers of Fleet-street, whose catalogues, fluttering at the door, have tempted many a poor man to enter and lay out his little all, will shortly recommence business under the title of SOUTHWATE & Co. Their first sale for the season will consist of engravings.

Messrs. RIVINGTON announce, with other books in preparation, "Post-Medieval Preachers, some Account of the most celebrated Preachers of the 15th, 16th, and 17th Centuries, with Outlines of their Sermons, and Specimens of their Style," by H. Baring Gould, Author of "Iceland, its Scenes and Sagas," &c.; and "Sermons on Practical Subjects," by Francis Pilon, &c.

Messrs. LOWE & Co. have more novelties in preparation; among others, "Selvaggio, a Tale of Italy," by the Author of "Mary Powell," 1 vol., and "The Sayworthys," a novel, 2 vols.

Messrs. MACMILLAN & Co. have in the press, "Gustavus Adolphus," "Social Aspects of the Thirty Years' War," two "Lectures" by R. Chenevix Trench, Archbishop of Dublin; "Christian Evidences and the Bible, being sermons preached in St. Martin's Church, Leicester, with a preface and notes by the Rev. D. J. Vaughan; and "A History of the Mathematical Theory of Probability, from the Time of Pascal to that of Laplace," by Isaac Todhunter, &c.

Messrs. HURST & BLACKETT have just ready, "Impressions of Life at Home and Abroad," by Lord Eustace Cecil, 1 vol.

Mr. NEWBY announces for immediate publication, "Elsie's Married Life," a novel, by Mrs. Mackenzie Daniel; "Who Did It?" a novel, by W. W. Walpole; "Worth or Birth?" a novel, by Mrs. Armitage; "The London Cousin," a novel; and "The Naval Lieutenant," a sea tale, by C. F. Armstrong.

Messrs. CHAPMAN & HALL's new publications include a book of home travel, by Mr. Walker White—now well known by similar works, generally the result of vacation tours—"Eastern England, from the Thames to the Humber," in 2 vols.; also "The Lost Manuscript," by Herr Freytag (the popular German novelist), translated by Mrs. Malcolm, 3 vols.; "Strathmore," by Ouida, 3 vols.; and "The Woman I Loved and the Woman who Loved Me," by the Author of "Agnes Tremorne," 1 vol.

Mr. SKEFFINGTON, of Piccadilly, will shortly issue a volume entitled "The Phenomena of Radiation, as Exemplifying the Wisdom and Beneficence of God," by S. Warington, F.C.S. (Actonian Prize Essay.)

Messrs. TINSLEY BROTHERS have in the press a new novel by the author of "East Lynne," entitled "Mildred Arkell," by Mr. Henry Wood, 3 vols. The same house will publish this week a volume entitled "Wit and Wisdom from West Africa, or a Book of Proverbial Philosophy, Idioms, Enigmas, and Laconisms," compiled by Richard F. Burton, author of "A Pilgrimage to El Medinah and Meccah," &c.; a new tale by Benjamin Brierly, entitled "Irkdale, a Lancashire Story," 2 vols.; and a novel, by the author of "The Field of Life," in 3 vols., entitled "A Woman's Way."

"Les Indiscretions d'un Cocher" is the title of a new novel which has just been published by DENTU.

The success of the translation of Shakespeare by Victor Hugo's son has been so great that the first edition is already exhausted.

HETZEL & Co. have on sale a curious work entitled "Un Habitant de la Planète Mars," by Henri de Parville.



## LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK.

- Barry (W. W.), Practice of Conveyancing. 8vo., 18s.  
 Barth (Dr. T. C.), Bible Manual. 2nd edit. Imp. 8vo., 12s.  
 Blenkarn (J.), Specifications of Works in Architecture. 8vo., 18s.  
 Bull (Rev. W.), Memorials of. New edit. Cr. 8vo., 7s. 6d.  
 Burton (R. F.), Wit and Wisdom from West Africa. Cr. 8vo., 12s. 6d.  
 Cayley (C. B.), The Psalms in Metre. Cr. 8vo., 2s. 6d.  
 Chess Strategy. Cr. 8vo., 5s.  
 Cockton (H.), Valentine Vox. New edit. Fcap., 2s.  
 Cooper (T.), Triumphs of Perseverance. Fcap., 3s. 6d.  
 Cricketana. Fcap., 5s.  
 Dalton (Rev. E.), Plain Words of Instruction. 18mo., 2s. 6d.  
 Daniell (E. R.), Practice of the High Court of Chancery. 4th edit. Vol. I. 8vo., £1. 11s. 6d.  
 Davidson's Precedents and Forms in Conveyancing. 2nd edit. Vol. V. Part II. Royal 8vo., £1. 12s.  
 Decorative Alphabets. 4to., 7s. 6d.  
 Drutt (R.), Cheap Wines of France. 8vo., 2s. 6d.  
 Drummond (Rev. J.), Thoughts for the Christian Life. Cr. 8vo., 7s. 6d.  
 Ellicott (Bishop), On the Epistle to the Philippians. 3rd edit. 8vo., 10s. 6d.  
 Family Herald. Vol. 23. 4to., 7s. 6d.  
 Favourite Picture-Book. Royal 4to., 3s. 6d.  
 Gidley (L.), Aletes. A Poem. Fcap., 4s. 6d.  
 Goldsmith (O.), Miscellaneous Works. Royal 8vo., 5s.  
 Gordon (Lady D.), Letters from Egypt. Cr. 8vo., 8s. 6d.  
 Grant (G.), Second to None. Fcap., 2s. 6d.  
 Grout (Rev. L.), Zulu Land. Cr. 8vo., 7s. 6d.  
 Hessev (Dr. J. A.), History of the Kings of Judah. Cr. 8vo., 6s. 6d.  
 Hook (Dr.), Family Prayers. New edit. 18mo., 2s.  
 Jones (Rev. H.), Life in the World. Fcap., 5s.  
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 Railroad Reform.  
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 The London Theatres.  
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## ADVERTISEMENTS.

## ROYAL BOTANIC SOCIETY, REGENT'S PARK.

FIRST EXHIBITION of PLANTS and FLOWERS will take place on Wednesday next, May 24th.

Tickets to be obtained at the Gardens, and of the Society's Clerk, Austin's Ticket Office, St. James's Hall, on Vouchers from Fellows of the Society. Price 5s., or on the day of Exhibition, 7s. 6d. each. Gates open at 2 o'clock.

ARCHITECTURAL EXHIBITION, 9, Conduit-street, Regent-street.—Now Open Daily, Admission One Shilling. Season Tickets Half a Crown, admitting to this and the Exhibition of the Photographic Society of London, and to all the Lectures and Conversazioni. Lecture for Tuesday, May 16th (at 8 p.m.), "Incidents of Old English Architecture—Civil and Ecclesiastical, especially in small towns and rural districts." By A. J. B. Beresford-Hope, Esq., President of the Royal Institute of British Architects.

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## ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL FUND AND NATIONAL GUINEA SUBSCRIPTION, for the Completion and Adornment of the Interior of the Cathedral, and for Providing a Case and Substructure for the Great Organ used at the Special Sunday Evening Services under the Dome, and at the Annual Festivals.

Treasurers.—WILLIAM COTTON, Esq.; J. G. HUBBARD, Esq., M.P.

The Dean and Chapter and the Committee have submitted to the public a proposal for completing and adorning the interior of the Cathedral, with details of the general scheme, and an approximate statement of the cost of each particular portion of the work.

They have now much satisfaction in stating that recent subscriptions have enabled them to begin the work by putting up a painting in mosaic, representing the Prophet Isaiah, from a design by Mr. Alfred Stevens, as the commencement of a series of eight similar subjects, with which they are desirous of filling the eight spandrels formed by the great arches of the dome. Four out of the eleven principal painted windows which are proposed (two of which are in a forward state) have been presented.

The Committee have recently been made aware that very many persons have objected to subscribe from the impression that the authorities of the Cathedral have ample funds at their disposal to accomplish all that is intended, without extraordinary aid. They beg to state that the Cathedral Chapter command no such funds. Both the Dean of St. Paul's and the Bishop of London have explained, very distinctly, that there are no revenues for this purpose.

The Committee feel assured that these authoritative statements will be respected. They again earnestly invite Subscriptions, to enable them to proceed with the important work, and conclude their appeal with the words of the Bishop of Oxford at a public meeting at the Mansion-house some time since, when the Right Rev. Prelate said, "That in moving the resolution he claimed an interest in the subject of the Meeting, not only for every member of the Church of England, but also for every citizen of the realm, and refused to allow the movement to be monopolized by the people of the metropolis. London was the centre and heart of the kingdom, and St. Paul's was the heart of Christian London; and he appealed earnestly, not only to the inhabitants of this great commercial city and metropolis, but to the whole nation, and to the Christian feeling of every member of the Church of England, to assist in making the interior of St. Paul's altogether worthy of its architect's great design, and worthy of a country like England."

Donations for special objects are invited. Subscriptions, by the kind permission of the Lord Mayor, may be forwarded to the Mansion-house; or be deposited in the collecting-boxes of the Cathedral; and will be received at the Bank of England, the Western Branch, Burlington-gardens; and by the following bankers:—Messrs. Herries, St. James's-street; Drummond, Charing-cross; Coutts & Co., Strand; Gosling & Sharpe, Fleet-street; Hoare, Fleet-street; Barclay & Co., Lombard-street; Barnett & Co., Lombard-street; Smith, Payne, & Co., Lombard-street; Williams, Deacon, & Co., Birchin-lane; and by F. C. Penrose, Esq., Surveyor to the Cathedral; and W. C. Shone, Esq., Secretary, at the Chapter-house, 68, St. Paul's-churchyard, E.C., to whom Post-office orders may be made payable.

Cheques should be made out to the Treasurers, and crossed "Bank of England."

## UNIVERSITY OF LONDON.

NOTICE IS HEREBY GIVEN, That the next Half-yearly Examination for MATRICULATION in this University will commence on MONDAY, the 26th of JUNE, 1865. In addition to the Metropolitan Examination, Provincial Examinations will be held at St. Guthbert's College, Ushaw; Stonyhurst College; St. Mary's College, Oscott; St. Patrick's College, Carlisle; Owen's College, Manchester; and Queen's College, Liverpool.

Every Candidate is required to transmit his Certificate of Age to the Registrar (Burlington House, London, W.) at least fourteen days before the commencement of the Examination.

Candidates who pass the Matriculation Examination are entitled to proceed to the Degrees conferred by the University in Arts, Science, and Medicine. This Examination is accepted (1) by the Council of Military Education in lieu of the Entrance Examination otherwise imposed on Candidates for admission to the Royal Military College at Sandhurst; and (2) by the College of Surgeons in lieu of the Preliminary Examination otherwise imposed on Candidates for its Fellowship. It is also among those Examinations of which some one must be passed (1) by every Medical Student on commencing his professional studies; and (2) by every person entering upon Articles of Clerkship to an Attorney,—any such person Matriculating in the First Division being entitled to exemption from one year's service.

May 15, 1865.

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May, 1865.

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Special rates for money deposited for long periods.

May 17th, 1865.

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May 1, 1865.

BONUS YEAR, 1865.

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The Fund then to be divided will consist of the Profits which have Accumulated since 1859.

All participating Policies opened before that date will share in the Division.

During the six years prior to the last Division, the Annual

Average of Sums assured amounted to..... £293,694 0 0

During the last six years—1859 to 1864 inclusive—the Annual

Average has amounted to..... £701,656 0 0

Being an increase of 138 per cent.

During the years 1863 and 1864, the Company has issued 2,311 NEW POLICIES, assuring very nearly TWO MILLIONS STERLING.

In 1864 alone, 1,240 Policies were issued, assuring..... £1,034,578 0 0

NINETY PER CENT. of the Whole Profits divided among the Assured.

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PREMIUMS for 1864, less Re-insurances ..... £219,235 10 8

Being an increase over those for 1863 of ..... 54,043 2 5

INSURANCES granted at HOME and ABROAD on the most liberal terms.

ACCUMULATED FUNDS at 31st December, 1864 ..... £2,304,512 7 10

ANNUAL REVENUE from all Sources ..... 565,458 16 2

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Capital .....	£391,752	0	0
Life Reserve .....	1,656,221	13	4
Reserved Surplus Fund .....	971,409	12	10
Undivided Profit .....	192,959	18	11
	£3,212,343	5	1

ESTABLISHED 1837.

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25	1 16 0	40	2 15 1
30	2 0 8	45	3 6 3

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With Peruvian Government Guarantee of Interest at the rate of £7 per Cent. per Annum, as hereinafter set forth,  
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**Present Issue — £1,670,000, in 66,800 Shares of £25 each.**

DEPOSIT, £1 PER SHARE ON APPLICATION, & £2 PER SHARE ON ALLOTMENT.

Future Calls of £2. 10s. per Share will be made at intervals of not less than Three Months between each Call.

Seven per cent. per annum will be paid during the Construction, and is guaranteed by the International  
Contract Company (Limited).

### DIRECTORS.

WILLIAM LATHAM BAILEY, Esq. (Bailey Brothers & Co., Liverpool).  
WILLIAM CARTER, Esq. (Joseph Robinson & Co., Laurence Pountney-  
hill.  
JOHN ENNIS, Esq., M.P., Director of the Bank of Ireland.  
P. S. FLETCHER, Esq. (Alex. Fletcher & Co., 10, King's Arms-yard).  
S. G. GETTY, Esq., M.P. for Belfast, Onslow-square.

W. R. LINDSAY, Esq. (Messrs. H. H. Vivian & Co., Birmingham).  
S. L. KOE, Esq., Bowling Iron Works, Bradford.  
ALBERT RICARDO, Esq., Angel-court, Throgmorton-street, Director of  
the National Bank.  
ROBERT SIMPSON, Esq. (Frederick Levick & Co.), Charlotte-row, and  
Cwm Celyn Iron Works.

### Bankers.

London—The NATIONAL BANK. Liverpool—The NATIONAL BANK OF LIVERPOOL.  
Manchester—The MANCHESTER AND LIVERPOOL DISTRICT BANK.  
Ireland—The BANK OF IRELAND and its Branches. The Branches of the NATIONAL BANK.

### Contractors.

The INTERNATIONAL CONTRACT COMPANY (Limited).

### Engineers.

GEORGE PARKER BIDDER, Esq., C.E.

JOHN MORTIMER HEPPEL, Esq., C.E.

### Solicitors.

Messrs. BIRCHAM, DALRYMPLE, DRAKE, & Co., Parliament-street.

Messrs. BAXTER, ROSE, NORTON, & Co., Victoria-street.

### Brokers.

London—Messrs. P. CAZENOVE & Co., Threadneedle-street.  
„ Messrs. SEYMOUR & Co., Throgmorton-street.

Liverpool—Messrs. THOMAS TINLEY & SONS.  
Manchester—Messrs. WARNER & PAGE, Stamp Office-buildings.  
Dublin—EDWARD FOX, Esq., Dame-street.

Secretary.—B. A. SMITH, Esq.

OFFICES—85, CANNON STREET WEST, E.C.

This Company is formed for the construction and working of two lines of Railway in Peru—one to connect the seaport of Pisco with the town of Yca; the other to connect the city of Arequipa with the port of Mejia.

For the construction of these Railways, the Government of Peru have granted special concessions, and a guarantee of income, which would appear exorbitant, if it were not that the statistics of the existing traffic have satisfied the Peruvian Government that the Railways, when at work, will yield returns which will not only relieve the Government of the charge for their guarantee, but far exceed the sum required for that purpose.

The Peruvian Government guarantees for the period of twenty-five years—or until the Railways have produced, over and above the cost and provision for repair, renovation, and maintenance for the space of two consecutive years, Dividends at the rate of 7 per cent. per annum—an income of £233,800 per annum, charged upon the public revenues of the State, and further secured by hypothecation of the Guano shipped to European States. The concessions for the Railways contain the usual provision for reimbursing to the Government (out of any surplus profit exceeding a 10 per cent. per annum dividend to the Shareholders) such sums, if any, as may have been paid by them to cover their guarantee.

The concessions of these lines of Railway from the Government of Peru is for a period of ninety-nine years from the opening of the Railways. A sufficient sum will be set apart to form a sinking fund for the redemption of the whole capital, at a premium of £100 per cent., to be operative yearly after the first twenty years of the working of the Railways. The shares so redeemed to be altogether cancelled, and the dividends which would otherwise be payable on such shares to accrue to and form part of the sinking fund. After the first fifty years the price at which shares shall be redeemed and cancelled shall be regulated at such higher or other price than £100 per cent. premium as the state of the sinking fund shall warrant.

When it is borne in mind that the Peruvian Government Loan, bearing 4½ per cent. per annum interest, previously borrowed on the same security, is rapidly in course of extinction, it will be quite evident that, irrespective of the prospect of a much higher rate of dividend being realized from the working of the Railway, the nature of the security should obtain a ready market for the shares of the company.

The prospects of revenue from the working of the Railways are, however, so great as to render the Government guarantee (in other respects so important) a feature of but secondary consideration.

The Republic of Peru has a seaboard of nearly 1,600 miles, and an area of about 50,000 square miles. There is, perhaps, no country in the world in which the elements of commercial prosperity are more complete. The mineral products of all kinds with which its interior provinces abound, combined with its long stretch of coast, give it an almost unrivalled facility for the development of commerce on the most extensive scale. To this development one obstacle—and one alone—exists: the want of proper means of communication between the ports and the interior country.

In spite of this obstacle, the large existing trade of the Republic is proved by its custom returns; and that undertakings, having for their object the remedy for this defect, are likely to be remunerative, is shown by the working of the Callao and Lima Railway, which now pays dividends at a rate approaching £30 per cent. per annum on the original cost of construction.

The ordinary charge for the conveyance of goods per mile in Peru, is equal to the charge for the carriage of a like quantity in Great Britain fourteen miles.

The construction of the Railways to be undertaken by this Company will establish communication between important centres of commerce in the interior and the proper ports on the sea coast.

The line from Mejia to Arequipa is laid out to serve the traffic which at present takes the route from the latter city to the port of Islay, a route which forms the main channel of communication from the coast to the districts of Arequipa, Puno, and Cuzco, and the northern portion of Bolivia.

The connexion with the last-mentioned State is important, as the establishment of a system of Railways suitable to its own wants is now a subject of serious attention. The Railway now proposed would form one of the main outlets of any such system to the coast of the Pacific, a circumstance which alone must secure it a considerable additional traffic of the most remunerative description.

The Railway from Pisco to Yca is proposed to be constructed under conditions analogous to those of the Callao and Lima line already referred to.

From the easy character of this line, and a large existing traffic in the district to be traversed, it is evident that the net revenue must greatly exceed the guaranteed amount.

The lengths of the proposed Lines are as follows:—

Mejia to Arequipa . . . . .	90 miles.
Pisco to Yca . . . . .	46 „
Total . . . . .	136 miles.

A contract for the construction of the Lines has been entered into with the International Contract Company, Limited, according to the estimates of G. P. BIDDER, Esq., C.E., and J. M. HEPPEL, Esq., C.E.

In accordance with the terms of each Concession, the Company will be converted into a *Société Anonyme* with Shares to bearer, or, if necessary, into two *Sociétés Anonymes*.

The Capital of the *Société Anonyme*, or *Sociétés Anonymes*, will be £3,340,000, to be issued in Shares and Bonds.

The present Company has been formed as a Limited Liability Company, the Shares in which will be exchangeable for Shares of a like denomination in the *Société Anonyme*.

Copies of the Articles of Association, of the Contract, and of the Acts of Concession, with translations, are open, at the Offices of the Company, for inspection by parties desirous to become Subscribers, so that they may make themselves acquainted with all the provisions and conditions of such Concessions.

The deposit paid on application for Shares will be forfeited and the allotment cancelled in cases where the further payment on allotment is not duly made in accordance with the terms of the Allotment Letter.

Applications for shares must be made in the usual form, addressed to the Directors; but no application will be considered, unless accompanied by the receipt of one of the Bankers of the Company for £1 per share on the number of shares applied for. This sum will be returned in the event of the application not being acceded to.

\* Forms of Application for Shares and Prospectuses may be had at—

The National Bank, London;  
The National Bank of Liverpool;  
The Bank of Ireland, and its several Branches, Ireland;  
The Branches of the National Bank, Ireland;  
At the Offices of the Brokers of the Company; and  
At the Offices of the International Contract Co., 85, Cannon-street  
West, London, E.C.